






A NEW HISTORY OF ENGLAND
AND GREAT BRITAIN



Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2025

https://archive.org/details/bwb_KU-670-423

A NEW HISTORY
OF
ENGLAND
AND
GREAT BRITAIN

WITH MAPS AND TABLES

BY

J. M. D. MEIKLEJOHN, M.A.

PROFESSOR OF THE THEORY, HISTORY, AND PRACTICE OF EDUCATION
IN THE UNIVERSITY OF ST. ANDREWS

PART I. : B.C. 55—A.D. 1509

ELEVENTH EDITION

LONDON
MEIKLEJOHN AND HOLDEN

11 PATERNOSTER SQUARE, E.C.

1907

[All Rights Reserved]

Edinburgh: T. and A. CONSTABLE, Printers to His Majesty

PREFACE

THIS book is a new edition of my "History of the British Empire ;" but so many changes have been made in it, and so many additions to it, that it is practically a new book. It consists of a continuous narrative of the chief events of each reign in the history of England and Great Britain, along with a number of notes and illustrative remarks which throw side-lights on the most important events and characters in the history of the country. The following are believed to be the specifically new features in this book :—

(i) At the beginning of each reign a clear statement is made as to who each succeeding sovereign was, his relation to the preceding sovereign, his children, and his other relatives.

(ii) Clear **genealogies** are given of each House.

(iii) The chief clauses in **Treaties** and **Acts of Parliament** are briefly and clearly set out.

(iv) A paragraph is given to the **Great Men** of each reign.

(v) The **Social Facts** connected with each period are briefly given.

(vi) The **Literature** of, and the state of the **Language** at, the period are shortly described.

(vii) A **Short Chronology** of each reign is given at the end of it, so that the student may get it up with ease, and make himself quite sure of the main events.

(viii) A brief view is presented of **Important Contemporary Events** in other countries.

(ix) Short **Lives of Eminent Persons** have been appended to the book.

(x) Short definitions, with examples, have been given of the **Terms** employed in **English History**. With this a few **derivations** have been given.

(xi) The **Chronological System** of Mr. David Nasmith, Q.C., has been employed for each century.

This system is so ingenious, and yet so simple, that it deserves a

longer description. It is based on the ordered arrangement in **space** of each **decade**. The decade appears thus :—

1190		
1191 Richard takes Acre. Corporation of London first legally recognised.	1192 Richard captured by the Duke of Austria and sold to the Emperor, Henry VI.	1193
1194 Richard ransomed for 150,000 marks. He returns to England for two months.	1195	1196
1197 Richard builds "Saucy Castle" (Chateau Gaillard) on the Seine —near Rouen.	1198 Hugh, Bishop of Lincoln, re- fuses to find money for a foreign war	1199 Death of Richard. JOHN. Archbishop Hubert Chancellor.

Thus : (a) The 0's always appear in the upper bar ; (b) the 1's on the upper left-hand corner ; (c) the 9's in the lowest right-hand corner ; (d) the 5's in the middle ; and so on. After a little practice with this table, the difficulty is not to remember, but to forget. The only effort of memory required is to remember in what space you have seen a particular statement ; and this is just as easy as to remember where a street or square is.

It is hoped that all these arrangements will make it easier for the student to get up and to remember the details of History, as well as the main events, which of themselves keep a firm hold of the mind. The paragraphs in small type will be of use to those who are preparing for examinations ; as they contain answers to most of the questions set in History Papers.

J. M. D. MEIKLEJOHN.

CONTENTS.

	PAGE
INTRODUCTORY,	1

BOOK I.

ENGLAND AND GREAT BRITAIN BEFORE THE CONQUEST.

CHAP.		
I.	The Romans settled in Britain,	9
II.	The English in Britain,	15
III.	Wessex and the Danes,	24
IV.	The Empire of Britain and the Danish Conquest,	32
V.	The Danish Kings,	38
VI.	The Confessor and the Godwins,	41
	England in Saxon Times,	47

BOOK II.

THE NORMAN KINGS.

I.	William the First,	55
II.	William the Second,	66
III.	Henry the First,	75
IV.	Stephen and his Enemy Matilda,	83
	England under Norman Rule,	90

BOOK III.

THE EARLIER ANGEVIN KINGS (PLANTAGENETS).

I.	Henry the Second,	95
II.	Richard the First (of Aquitaine),	110
III.	John,	118
IV.	Henry the Third (of Winchester),	130
	England under Angevin Rule,	145

BOOK IV.

THE LATER ANGEVIN KINGS (PLANTAGENETS).

CHAP.	PAGE
I. Edward the First (of Westminster), . . .	151
II. Edward the Second (of Carnarvon), . . .	167
III. Edward the Third (of Windsor), . . .	178
IV. Richard the Second (of Bordeaux), . . .	198
England in the Fourteenth Century, . . .	211

BOOK V.

YORK AND LANCASTER KINGS.

I. Henry the Fourth (of Bolingbroke), . . .	219
II. Henry the Fifth (of Monmouth), . . .	229
III. Henry the Sixth (of Windsor), . . .	240
IV. Edward the Fourth (of York), . . .	255
V. Edward the Fifth (of Westminster), . . .	265
VI. Richard the Third (of Gloucester), . . .	270

BOOK VI.

THE HOUSE OF TUDOR.

I. Henry the Seventh (Henry Tudor of Richmond), .	277
England in the Fifteenth Century, . . .	290

SHORT LIVES OF EMINENT PERSONS IN THE HISTORY OF

ENGLAND AND GREAT BRITAIN, . . .	295
TERMS EMPLOYED IN ENGLISH HISTORY, . . .	302
INDEX,	313

A NEW HISTORY OF ENGLAND AND GREAT BRITAIN

INTRODUCTORY

1. Position.—The British Empire, which now stretches over the whole globe on which we live, has its chief seat in the two islands of Great Britain and Ireland. These two islands lie off the coast of Europe, between the 49th and the 61st degrees of north latitude, with the long unbroken expanse of the stormy Atlantic to the west of them. It is to this position on the Atlantic that they owe their mild and healthy climate. While Labrador, which lies in exactly the same latitude, has a winter of nine months,—a winter fit only for seals and white bears, with a thermometer almost always below zero,—these islands enjoy a climate which enables corn and fruit to ripen, and in which—as Charles II. used to say—a man may be out of doors a larger number of hours than in any other country in Europe. The country is one of the most beautiful in the world. The larger half of England is like one wide rich garden,—

“Bright breadth of plain, blue-veined by many a stream,
Umbrageous hills, sweet glades, and forests fair.”

To this position, also, it is that these islands owe their enormous wealth and their ever growing trade. In the times of the Roman Empire, the trade of the world lay in and around the Mediterranean ; but in the present century, Britain¹ sends her ships to every climate and to every land ; and the Mediterranean of to-day is the Atlantic Ocean. So thickly do ships and steam-vessels come and go upon this ocean, that the great American physical geographer, Maury, recommended that lines should be drawn for vessels going and re-

¹ The word *Britain* is said to come from the Celtic word *Brit*, “painted,” because the warriors stained their chests with blue woad before going into battle.

turning, and that thus there should be "Ocean Lanes" for the regular journeys of ships. But, though Britain carries on a vaster trade with the New World than with any other country, not the less is her face turned to the continent of Europe, with every large town on which she has connection either by ship, or by rail, or by telegraph; and all for the purposes of a commerce which grows with the rising of every sun. The sun never sets and never rises on the British dominions; the roll of the British drum calls the British soldier to duty in the mornings of every longitude, and makes a belt of sound around the planet; and it would be perfectly practicable to put round the earth a girdle of telegraphic wire, the ends of which should rest only upon land belonging to the SOVEREIGN OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

(i) The first step to the wealth and power of Great Britain was the discovery of coal and iron about 150 years ago; a discovery which made this island the workshop of the world.

(ii) The greater acquisitions of land began also about 150 years ago with the conquest of North America and of India from the French, when the population of England was only about 5,000,000.

2. The Three Britains.—The larger of the two islands in which we live is called Great Britain (*Britannia Magna*). It received this name to distinguish it from another home of the British race which is now called Brittany (*Britannia Minor*, or, in French, *Bretagne*). In Brittany there still live more than a million persons of that family of the great Celtic race which is called British; and these persons speak a dialect¹ of that language which—in different forms and under different names—is found in Ireland, in Wales, in the Isle of Man, and in the Highlands of Scotland.² These two Britains have many points in common. Both had the same Druidical religion; both have the same traditions about King Arthur, and his coming again to rule their race; both have their *Cornwall* (in Brittany it is *Cornouailles*), where the same cruel and dastardly trade of wrecking was pursued; and both have their castle of St. Michael's Mount, on each of which Christianity has had its seat since the earliest ages. But these two Britains are now almost overshadowed by the world-wide fame of the **Greater Britain**, which, in every climate and on every

¹ A dialect is a *species*, a language is a *genus*; or we may say: A language is a big dialect, and a dialect is a little language.

² In Ireland it is called *Erse*; in Wales, *Kymric*; in the Isle of Man, *Manx*; in Scotland, *Gaelic*. It existed also in Cornwall, which used to be called West Wales; but it died out about 120 years ago in the person of an old lady called Dolly Pentreath.

continent, to the number of about one hundred million voices, speaks the tongue that is known in all parts of the world as **English**.

(i) Before the coming of the **Celts** into Great Britain, this island was thinly inhabited by a race of stunted savages, whose tools and weapons were of flint, wood, or bone; who dressed in skins, painted their bodies with red ochre and blue woad juice, and who lived by hunting. This was in the time when—as now in Labrador—glaciers filled the upper parts of the river-valleys, and there roamed in the plains and moors wild oxen, elks, wild horses, cave-lions, cave-bears, hyenas, and in the lowland swamps lived river-horses, elephants, and rhinoceroses.

(ii) The **Celts** are an Aryan Race who came from the Highlands of Central Asia—probably from the lofty table-land called “**High Pamir**.” Celtic languages are still spoken by the Welsh, Irish, Scotch Gaels, and Bretons; and most of the names of European rivers, mountains, etc., are Celtic.

(a) The *ar* in *Aryan* is said to be the same syllable as the *ar* in *arable*. Hence *Aryan* would mean the *ploughing race*.

(b) **PAMIR** lies to the north-west of the Karakorum Mountains and north-east of Hindoo Koosh.

(iii) The next Aryan race that spread over Europe were the **Tentons**; and to this family belong the Norwegians, Swedes, Danes, Dutch, Flemings, Germans, Scotch, and English.

(iv) The Asiatic races which settled in Europe that are not Aryans are the **Basques** (of the north of Spain), the **Finns**, the **Lapps**; and, at a later time, **Magyars** (in Hungary) and the **Ottoman Turks**. All these are **Turanians**—that is, they come from the Lowland of Turan, east of the Sea of Aral.

3. The Three Englands.—And, just as there are three Britains, so there are also three Englands. **Old England**, under the name of *Angeln*,¹ still exists in that part of Schleswig from which our forefathers came; and in that Angeln is still spoken a speech which, in its main features, is really the same as that which passes from mouth to mouth in these two islands. Our forefathers, when in the fifth century they left their native heaths and farms to obtain a settlement in Britain, brought with them the customs and the laws and the name of **English** and **England**. Much later on, in the troubled and confused times of Charles I., a number of stern and resolute Englishmen threw off the religious and political oppression under which they groaned, and left the shores of their mother country to found a **New England**,² which still grows in enterprise, in wealth, and in manly virtues, on the western shores of the stormy Atlantic.

¹ The change of pronunciation of the broad *a*, which passes into a narrow *a*, and then into *e*, may be seen in the three ways of pronouncing *Pall Mall*. In Scotland it is sounded as in *ball*; in middle England, as in *bal* in *balcony*; in London and the South, as in *fell*.

² New England comprises six States,—Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Vermont, and Rhode Island. It contains 65,000 square miles; that is, about one-eighth larger than England.

(i) "In the fifth century after the birth of Christ, the one country which bore the name of England was what we now call Schleswig, a district in the heart of the peninsula (of Jutland) which parts the Baltic from the Northern seas."—GREEN.

(ii) There is in Schleswig a small district which keeps the name of *Angeln* to this day.

4. First Glimpse.—The first faint note given by history of the existence of these islands is to be found in the story that the Scilly Isles¹ and Cornwall were frequently visited by sailors from Tyre and Sidon—two famous towns in a country called Phœnicia.² They came here to buy tin, a metal which was then deemed to be as valuable as gold; for, mixed with copper, it formed bronze, one of the hardest of composite metals. But the first distinct mention of Great Britain in trustworthy history is to be found in a book called the "Commentaries of Cæsar." The writer of the book, the great Julius Cæsar, states, that, about 60 B.C., Divitiacus, a king of Northern Gaul,³ looked upon this island as part of his dominions. At that time there were in the island two kinds of Britons. One—the native—was a half-naked savage, with skins of wild beasts on his shoulders, his body painted blue to frighten his enemies, using stone hatchets and arrow-heads of flint, growing no corn, living on milk and flesh, and leading a miserable life in the heart of dense forests and dreary marshes. The other kind, who had come from the neighbouring countries of Gaul and Belgium,⁴ inhabited chiefly the country along the southern coast, and were hard-working farmers and traders. They had orderly governments; they lived in comfortable circular houses; they wore dresses of good black broadcloth reaching to their feet; and the richer class walked about with gold-headed staves in their hands. Both these kinds of Britons were of the same race—the Celtic; and both had the same religion.

5. The Religion of the Celts.—Their religion was called *Druidism*. Their priests were the chief advisers of the British, and the educators of their youth; they were the poets and the prophets of their tribes. They venerated the wren, the hare, the oak,⁵ and especially the mistletoe; they performed their rites in the open air, in sacred groves, or on the tops of high hills, or in the midst of far-

¹ These islands were called the *Cassiterides*—*Tin Islands*.

² On the east coast of the Mediterranean.

³ Gaul=France.

⁴ Respectively called *Gallia* and *Gallia Belgica* by the Romans.

⁵ The word *druid* is said to come from the Celtic word *dru*, which in Greek appears as *drus*=oak.

stretching plains. It is said that they worshipped the SUN—a worship which is found both in the Old and in the New World, which was practised in Peru and in Persia, in Syria¹ and in Greece, in Hindustan and on the western shores of the Pacific. They believed in the immortality of the soul, and they offered human sacrifices. Criminals and captives, and even young children, were burnt alive in vast wicker cages, while the British troops beat their drums, and the Druid priests chanted fierce hymns of thanksgiving and praise to their hideous and bloodthirsty gods.

6. First Invasion. Julius Cæsar.—This great Roman general and writer had, for some years before B.C. 55, been engaged in subduing the Gauls to the Roman yoke. The Gauls had received aid from the Britons of the coast. These Britons, it must not be forgotten, lived in towns, tilled the ground, had good roads, worked in metals, made pottery, and had merchant fleets which traded with France and Spain. They could hardly, therefore, be called barbarians or uncivilised. Cæsar (then proconsul²), led by stories about the pearls and the other wealth of Britain, resolved to annex it to the Roman Empire; but his first invasion was made simply for the purpose of reconnoitring. At midnight on the 25th of August, 55 B.C., he set sail from the neighbourhood of Boulogne with two legions in eighty high-prowed ships. Next day the fleet put into Dover Bay; but the white cliffs bristled with armed men, and the order was given to make for another part of the coast. The fleet accordingly stood off, and at length cast anchor opposite the open beach of Deal.

First In-
vasion of
Julius
Cæsar
B.C. 55.

7. First Landing of the Romans. Here the Romans were again confronted by the Britons, with their scythed chariots drawn by swift and hardy ponies, their darts, and swords, and spears; and the Roman soldiers, finding it difficult to land, hesitated for some time in the presence of the swarms of a courageous enemy. At last the standard-bearer of the Tenth Legion, a fearless soldier and a personal favourite of Cæsar, jumped into the sea with his silver eagle, shouting: "Follow me, men of the Tenth, unless you wish to see

¹ The sun in Syria was known by the name *Baal*, which in Greek appears as *Apoll-o*.

² The *consuls* were the two chief magistrates of Rome: a *proconsul* was an officer who acted in the place of the consul.

your eagle in the hands of the enemy !” This would have been a disgrace never to be forgotten ; and the legionaries¹ jumped into the water, fought their way to the shore, and drove back the British troops.

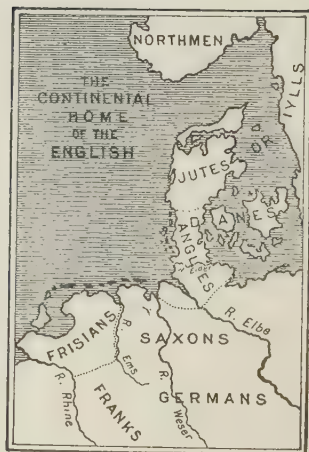
8. Second Invasion.—In about three weeks Cæsar left the island ; but he returned in May of next year—B.C. 54—with a fleet of 800 ships, and an army of 25,000 foot and 2000 horse, for a second attack. The British forces were commanded by **Caswallon** (or as the name stands in its Latin dress *Cassivellaunus*) ; but the hardy little chariot-horses were dismayed and demoralised by the steady onset of the Roman troops, could not be got to charge, and fled in terrible disorder, cutting their own men to pieces with their revolving scythes. Cæsar imposed a tribute and received hostages² for the due payment of it ; and, re-embarking for Gaul, never returned to the island.

¹ Common soldiers of the legion, a body which consisted of from 4500 to 6000 men.

² Young persons given as pledges of good conduct and peace.

BOOK I.

ENGLAND AND GREAT BRITAIN
BEFORE THE CONQUEST



CHAPTER I.

THE ROMANS SETTLED IN BRITAIN.

1. The First Campaign.—For nearly a century Rome left Britain unmolested. But in the year 43, the Emperor Claudius sent a large army of about 40,000 men to seize the island, **43 A.D. to 410.** under the command of **Aulus Plautius** and **Vespasian**. (This Vespasian was the great general who besieged Jerusalem, which was ultimately levelled with the ground and sowed with salt by his son, Titus, Vespasian himself having been chosen Emperor at the time). **Claudius** followed, remained in the island sixteen days, went back to Rome, proclaimed a victory for himself, and took the surname of **Britannicus**, as if he had subdued the whole island. After seven years of hard fighting, the leader of the Britons, **Caradoc** (in its Latin form, *Caractacus*¹) was defeated and sent in chains to Rome. When led captive through the splendid streets of the capital of the world, he expressed his astonishment that the possessors of wealth so vast should envy him his thatched cottage in Britain; and the Emperor, struck by his intelligence, and his free and noble bearing, spared him his life.

2. The slaughter of the Druids.—In the year 58, **Suetonius Paulinus** was appointed governor of Britain. He determined, as a root-and-branch stroke of policy, to put the **A.D. 58.** Druids to death, and to stamp out, if possible, their religion and their influence. He accordingly led an army, by forced marches, to the sacred isle of **Mona**, which is now called *Anglesea*. Here he was met by a British army, supported on each side by Druids in their white robes, and by priestesses with streaming hair and torches in their hands, chanting hymns, shrieking fierce defiance, and rushing wildly to and fro. But Suetonius and his **Devastation of Mona 61.** legionaries fell upon them, and put to death man and woman, soldier, priest, and priestess without mercy.

¹ He was the chieftain of the *Silures*, the tribe which lived in South Wales.

3. The Revolt of Boadicea.—Meanwhile, however, in the east of the island, a terrible revolt had broken out. **Boadicea**, queen of the Icenians, remonstrated with womanly vigour against an act of treachery on the part of **Catus**, the Roman treasurer, who had been left in command. Her husband, **Prasutagus**, king of the Icenians, a British tribe in Norfolk, had, in the hope of securing the friendship of the Romans, bequeathed one-half of his dominions to them ; but he had no sooner died than they seized upon the whole. The reply of the infamous Catus to the remonstrance of Boadicea was to seize her, bind her, and, in presence of the Roman legionaries, have her scourged with rods like a slave. The Romans also struck and insulted her two daughters. Mad with rage and shame, she roused her countrymen, and towering high in her war-chariot, with her daughters shivering at her feet, told in short and fiery words the terrible story of her wrongs. One of the tallest of women, she stood with distorted features and flaming eyes, her long yellow hair streaming in the wind, a collar of gold upon her neck, and a long spear in her hand, and the words came quick and fast from her quivering lips ; while the hoarse shouts of the Britons, with the clash and clang of darts and spears and swords upon their bucklers, replied fitly and readily to her eloquent and burning words. One Roman town after another was captured, and man, woman, and child were cut to pieces. The Roman colonies *Camulodunum*,¹ *Verulamium*,² and *Londinium*³—even then a flourishing place of commerce—were rased to the ground.

“Ran the land with Roman slaughter, multitudinous agonies ;
Perished many a maid and matron, many a valorous legionary ;
Fell the colony, city, and citadel—London, Verulam, Camulodune.”

Suetonius, on receiving the news, returned with all speed, fell upon the army of Boadicea, and defeated her with terrible slaughter. With broken hopes and broken heart, with her friends lying dead, and her country in ruins, she drank a phial of poison, fell dead, and thus escaped the triumphal car of the Roman conqueror.⁴

Defeat of
Boadicea

62.

¹ Colchester.

² St. Albans.

³ London. *Camulodunum* (Colchester) was the first Roman colony in Britain.

⁴ A Roman general who obtained a “triumph” exhibited his captives in a procession, in chariots and triumphal cars.

4. **Agricola.**—The real conqueror of Britain was **Julius Agricola**, who was its governor from 78 to 84. He was an able statesman, a wise and mild governor; and under his rule many noble Britons assumed and used the Roman toga,¹ the Latin language, and the customs and manners of their conquerors. His life has been written by his son-in-law, **Tacitus**, the great Roman historian. To keep off the attacks of the wild North Britons, he drew a line of fortifications from the Firth of Forth to the Firth of Clyde. This line consisted of banks of earth, with earth-camps at intervals. He carried through with solid success seven campaigns; and, in the last, overthrew, at **Mons Grampius**, near Comrie in Perthshire, 30,000 Caledonians under **Galgacus**, who fell on the field of battle. He also sailed as far north as the Orkneys, and discovered—what had been hitherto quite unknown—that Britain was an island. He made excellent roads, built strong towns, distributed justice, and put an end to the power of the grasping Roman tax-gatherers,² until the Emperor Domitian, becoming jealous of his fame, recalled him to Rome in the year 84.

(i) The Romans divided the country into six provinces:

- (1) **Britannia Prima**—all the country south of the Thames and the Bristol Channel.
- (2) **Flavia Cesariensis**—which included the central counties, the Thames, Severn, Mersey, and Humber being the boundaries.
- (3) **Britannia Secunda**—Wales and all the land west of the Severn and Dee.
- (4) **Maxima Cesariensis**—From the Mersey and the Humber to the Tyne and the Wall of Hadrian.
- (5) **Valentia**—From the Tyne to the Forth and the Wall of Antoninus (*Grime's Dyke*).
- (6) **Vespasiana**—the country north of this wall. (But this province was never conquered by the Romans.)

(ii) The advantages to the Britons of the Roman occupation were numerous:

- (1) The Romans gave them a strong and just government.
- (2) They were the indirect means of introducing Christianity.
- (3) They enlarged British commerce.
- (4) They improved British agriculture; and Britain was for some time called the "Western Granary."
- (5) They made magnificent and lasting roads, parts of which still exist.
- (6) They built splendid towns. Their brickwork was the best and most lasting the world has ever seen. Some of it still exists in as good a state as when it was put up. Bath was the favourite Roman watering-place, and contained numerous temples, palaces, and theatres. In London there was a temple to Apollo, where Westminster Abbey now stands, and one to Diana on the site of St. Paul's.

¹ The gown or robe worn only by Roman citizens.

² Called *publicani* (*publicans*),

5. The Roman Settlements.—The chief support of the Roman power in Great Britain lay in their settlements or colonies of veteran soldiers. These colonies were fortified towns; and the veterans were paid, not with pensions, but with land and privileges. These towns became little centres of order and civilisation. The Roman army in Britain, which generally numbered 30,000 foot and 6000 horse, consisted chiefly of legionaries drafted from distant parts of the Roman Empire; while a corresponding number of the British youth were sent to these distant countries to keep down revolts and disturbances there.¹ These troops were stationed in strong forts and camps, defended by triple lines of earthworks, and were also distributed along the great northern walls. Many patrician² Romans also settled in Britain, and the wealthier nobles had country-houses (*villæ*) in different parts of the island, to which they resorted during the summer, and where they ate the oysters and purchased the pure white pearls, the fame of which had reached them even in their Italian homes.

(i) The chief traces left in our language of the Roman occupation are found in six words:

- (1) *Castra*—a camp. This word is found chiefly in three forms: *Chester* in the west and south, *caster* in the north and centre, and *cester* in the Midland counties.
- (2) *Strata (via)*—a paved road. This appears in our language as *street*; and in names of places in three chief forms: *Strat* (in *Stratford*), *stret* (in *Stretton*), and *street* (in *Streatham*). All the towns with this prefix stood on some Roman road, such as that from Richborough (near Ramsgate) to Chester.
- (3) *Colonia*—a settlement or colony, as in *Lincoln*.
- (4) *Portus*—a harbour, in *Bridport*, *Portsea*, etc.
- (5) *Vallum*—a palisaded rampart, in *Wallbury*, *Walton*, etc. From *vallum* the Normans also made their words *bailey* and *bailiff*.
- (6) *Fossa*—a ditch; found in *Fossway*, *Fosbrooke*.

It will be observed that three of these words relate to strong military works, not likely to disappear for centuries.

(ii) The traces of the Roman occupation in buildings and works are found in many places, such as Leicester, London, Bath, etc. Perhaps the greatest monument of Roman labour is the remains of the Roman Wall (Hadrian's) in Northumberland. The following were the four chief roads:

- (1) *Watling Street*—from Richborough (on Pegwell Bay), near Ramsgate, through London and Stratford-on-Avon to Chester; then on to Carnarvon, and also northwards into Scotland.

¹ This is a policy which the Romans always pursued, and which the composite empire of Austria pursues to the present day.

² Romans who belonged to the ranks of the nobility.

³ This is of course an English name—from *wade* (hence *wadille*), *vadla*, a pilgrim. There are still streets in London and Canterbury which go by that name.

(2) **Ikenild Street**—from Norwich to Dunstable, whence it eventually ran to the coast at Southampton.

(3) **Irmin Street**—from London to Lincoln, with a branch to York and Doncaster.

(4) **Foss Way**—between Cornwall and Lincoln.

English towns standing upon any of these "*Streets*" generally have the prefix *Stret*, *Strat*, or *Streat*—as *Stretton*, *Stratford*, *Stretford*, *Streatham*, etc. All the traffic, all the marching to and fro of soldiers went on in England upon these roads, until the cutting of canals and the construction of railways.

6. Hadrian and Severus.—In the year 120 the Emperor **Hadrian** visited Great Britain, and raised the wall which was called by his name. It was built to keep out the fierce and hardy Picts, and was hence called the *Picts' Wall*, and also the *Vallum Hadriani*. It was built (A.D. 121) of earth, between the Tyne¹ and the Solway Firth. In the reign of the Emperor **Antoninus**, called **Pius**, a new wall, on Agricola's line, between the Forth and the Clyde, was built in 139 by **Lollius Urbicus**, and received the name of *Vallum Antonini*.² But the Caledonians still gave trouble; and the Romans had to repel attack after attack, or to purchase peace with money from these hardy northern men. Accordingly, the Emperor **Severus**, who had been formerly Governor of Britain, came over again in 208, and after beating back the Caledonians, strengthened Hadrian's Dyke with a wall of stone and series of stone forts. He had scarcely turned south when the Caledonians rose again, and Severus again gave the order to march to the north. But he never reached even the southern wall; for he was suddenly seized with illness, and died at Eboracum³ (York) in the year 211. In the year 360, the Scots, a fierce tribe from the north of Ireland, began to harass the west and north of Britain. In the year 364, the Continental English (whom the Britons called Saxons) came in their long ships to the east coast, and ravaged the lands.

7. The Romans leave Britain.—The Romans remained in Britain, with varying fortunes, for two centuries longer. But, in the beginning of the fifth century, the Goths and other northern tribes were pressing upon the very heart of their empire, and troops in distant countries had to be withdrawn to guard the sacred city of Rome itself. Accordingly, in the early part of the year 410—the very year when Rome was besieged and taken—the Emperor Honorius wrote

¹ The town on the Tyne where the wall ended is still called *Wallsend*, and is famous for good coal.

² The country name for it was *Grime's Dyke*.

³ The Archbishop of York signs his name *Ebor*, short for *Eboracensis*.

letters to the British cities, releasing them from all allegiance to the empire ; and the Britons were left to themselves to guard their towns against the Caledonians. The Romans, then the greatest law-makers and road-makers¹ in the world, had made strong roads everywhere in the kingdom, and even into the heart of Scotland, had set up a practical system of law, and had administered justice with great impartiality and fairness. But, in the wars which followed the withdrawal of the Romans, their laws, institutions, manners, customs, and even their language, perished ; and nothing was left to show that the Romans had ever been in this island except the ruins of some of their towns, coins, urns, and tablets now and then dug up from the ground, and a few words which have kept their place in the English language we speak to-day.

The population of Britain in the fourth century was under a million. Of these 22,000 were Roman troops.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY OF ROMAN PERIOD.

1. Romans under Julius Cæsar invade Britain,	B.C.	55
2. Second Invasion, when Cassivellaunus is defeated by Cæsar,	,	54
3. Invasion by Claudius,	A.D.	43
4. London founded by the Romans,	,	49
5. Caractacus sent prisoner to Rome,	,	51
6. Boadicea slays 70,000 Romans and destroys several towns,	,	61
7. Romans slay 80,000 Britons, and Boadicea poisons herself,	,	61
8. Julius Agricola Governor of Britain,	,	78
9. Agricola builds a line of forts from the Forth to the Clyde,	,	81
10. Defeat of Galgacus at foot of Grampian Hills (near Comrie in Perthshire),	,	84
11. Hadrian builds a rampart (or earthwork) from Wallsend to the Solway Firth,	,	121
12. Severus builds a wall and a chain of stone forts along the line of Hadrian's Dyke,	,	210
13. Severus dies at Eboracum (York),	,	211
14. Diocletian Persecution. St. Alban the first British martyr,	,	305
15. The Emperor Honorius frees Britain from its allegiance,	,	410
16. Soldiers are sent by Honorius to aid the Britons against the Picts and Scots (an Irish tribe),	,	418
17. Valentinian III. withdraws all troops, ²	,	426
18. The Britons send a letter to Rome for aid, which they called the "Groans of the Britons,"	,	446

¹ There is a strong fundamental likeness between these two functions. Both spring from the same kind of systematising and organising mind. And a law is just a road—a road through the ordinary confusion of human affairs.

² "Of the Western provinces that obeyed the Cæsars, Britain was the last that was conquered and the first that was thrown away."—MACAULAY.

CHAPTER II.

THE ENGLISH IN BRITAIN.

1. **The English at Home** (i).—Three tribes, all belonging to the Low-German¹ branch of the widespread and powerful Teutonic race, lived near each other on the coast of the Baltic and the German Ocean. These were the Jutes, the Saxons, and the Angles. They all spoke one language, which received its name of *English* from the strongest tribe of the three. Unlike the classic races of Southern Europe, whose homes were clustered round a market-place or forum, alive with the hum of its crowded populace of quick wits and polished manners—moving rapidly about under a brilliant sun, these English Teutons loved a more scattered backwoodsman kind of settlement. The sea-swept flats of the Frisian shore and the gloomy pine-woods of the North German plain, broken only by mead or mere, present one vast monotonous expanse, within whose limits the lonely settlers would develop a simpler social life, slow of wit, dreamy, but home-loving. Round the homesteads ran the *tun* or town—a stout quick-set hedge, enclosing a simple community of peasants who lived upon and farmed their own land. Beyond lay their corn-fields, through which a few rough paths led to the common pasture-land, and, hemming in the little rustic world, the village *mark* of virgin forest, where on the moonlight eves played the elves and the pixies, the goblins and the gnomes, and, when the mantle of the winter's snow stilled the haunted glades, where the howl of the villagers' worst enemy, the wolf, was nightly heard.

2. **The English at Home** (ii).—They had no kings, but each little community ruled itself, administered justice to its members,

¹ Low-German means the German—people and language—in the lowlands; High-German, the German on the high table-lands of the south. The river *Main* is usually taken as the boundary. The German names are *Platt-Deutsch* (=Flat Dutch) and *Hoch-Deutsch* (=High Dutch).

and conducted its own affairs. In time of war, men of the same family and village fought side by side, encouraged each other to acts of desperate valour, and brought home to the fireside the stories of the brave who fought and fell. The unit of this society was the family; the strongest social tie was the tie of blood. The domestic virtues were the special and almost the only virtues of the Teutonic home. If one person injured another in life or limb, compensation was exacted not from the individual, but from the family or house. This compensation was called the "blood-wite." These little farmer-republics were composed of *ceorls* or freemen, and of *eorls* or nobles, and were ruled by selected *eorls*, who were called *ealdormen*. They met for public business under a sacred tree or at a *moot-hill*,¹ where peace or war was decided on, land bought and sold (by the simple transference of a turf cut from the soil), and laws were made. At first, all men able to bear arms met here, but soon it was found necessary to select the oldest and wisest—the *Witan*; hence the meeting was called the *Meeting of the Wise*—the *Witena-gemote*²—the wisest selected as representatives of the whole body of freemen.

(i) "Each little village of the old English community possessed a general independence of its own, and lay apart from all the others, often surrounded by a broad belt or *mark* of virgin forest. It consisted of a clearing like those of the American backwoods, where a single family or kindred had made its home, and preserved its separate independence intact. Each of these families was known by the name of its real or supposed ancestor, the patronymic being formed by the addition of the syllable *ing*."—ALLEN.

The suffix *ing* meant originally *son of*. Thus Alfred was called "Alfred Ethelwulfing" = Alfred the son of Ethelwulf. The pedigree of Ida, king of Northumbria, ran thus: "Ida was Eopping, Eoppa was Esing," etc., that is, "Ida was the son of Eoppa; Eoppa was the son of Esa," and so on, up to Woden. Then the suffix came to mean *part*, as in *farthing* (fourth part), *tithing* (tenth part), *riding* (formerly *thriding* = third part).

(ii) "The *mark* or border of woodland, heath, or fen was jealously guarded as a frontier and natural defence for the little predatory and agricultural community. Whoever crossed it was bound to give notice of his coming by blowing a horn; else he was cut down at once as a stealthy enemy. The marksman wished to remain separate from all others, and only to mix with those of his own kin."—ALLEN.

The word *mark* meant originally a *stroke* or *line*; then it came to mean a *border* or *limit*; and, last, the *country* or *land* which is bordered or limited. Thus, on the Continent, *Finland* is called *Finmark*; and we have *Denmark* (=the mark of the Danes), *Brandenmark* (=the land of the Brandenburgers), etc.

3. The Religion of the English.—The religion of these English farmers was the heathen religion of the whole Teutonic family.

¹ *Meeting-hill*. The word *mote* or *moot* comes from *meet*, and is still found in *witenagemote*, *folk-mote*, *wardmote*, etc.

² *Witena* is the possessive case of *Witan*.

Their chief god was Odin or Woden, the war-god, and the guardian of boundaries and of highroads; they also worshipped Thor or Thunder, the god of air; Frea or Fria, the goddess of joy and fruitfulness; Soetere, the god of hate; and Tew, the god of the dark. All these names still exist in our names for the days of the week.¹ Eostre was the goddess of the dawn and of spring—the dawn of the year; and her name still survives in our spring festival of *Easter*. Their heaven was Valhalla; and any man who died on the field of battle was at once received into that heaven of high delight, where he spent his time for ever in feasting and drinking in the evening, and in fighting and hacking and hewing during the livelong day.

(i) The Kings of England were in the habit of tracing their descent to Woden, "father of victory, wisest of gods and men." He had only one eye: he had sold the other for the Water of Wisdom, which enabled him to know all things past and future.

(ii) The Old English also believed in smaller deities such as *elves*, who were fairies of the woods and wells, of the fields and meadows; and *Elf* was a very frequent prefix for names. Thus *Elfgifu* means the "Gift of the Elves"; *Aelfrēd* or *Alfred*, the "Counsel of the Elves," etc. *Elf* is an old Indo-European word meaning *little*; the elves are the "little folk" ("wee folk, good folk, trooping all together").

4. The English at Sea.—These English farmers, hunters, and fishermen were skilful alike in the use of the sword and the spade, of the oar and the sail. They had a passion for the sea and a fierce joy in the storm; they found strength in the terrible gales of the Northern Sea, and were at home on the most tempestuous billows. They were utterly careless—the younger men among them—of their lives; the sea was "their school of war, and the storm their friend"; and the Britons of the coast knew them as "sea-whelps," "sea-dogs," and "sea-wolves." For the last two hundred years—from about 250 to 450 A.D.—they had been in the habit of coming over in their war-galleys, and making a sudden swoop on the British coast. From their long knives—*seaxe*—they were known as Knife-men or Saxons; and even in the third century the Romans had appointed a governor to guard the British coast against them, who was known as the Count of the Saxon Shore.² But now, in the middle of the fifth

¹ We have *Woden* in *Wednesday* and *Wednesbury*, and in *Odensee* in *Funen*; *Thor* in *Thursday*; *Frea* in *Friday*; *Soetere* in *Saturday*; and *Tew* in *Tuesday*.

² Comes *Littoris Saxonici*. The term *Saxon* is said to come from *seaxe*, a short sword, and to have denoted a confederacy of tribes from *Jutland* to the mouth of the *Rhine*.

century, hearing that the Romans had deserted Britain, they cast an eye of longing and of earth-hunger upon this island ; and very soon they found a pretext for coming over.

The war-galley of the English was called *aesc* (=ash), because it was made of that wood. It was a long row-boat, with high prow and stern. To the right side of the pointed stern was fixed an oar-like rudder : hence this side of a ship is still called the *star* (=steer) board.

5. The First English Landing.—English history, as distinguished from British history, now begins. It begins with the landing of **Hengist** and **Horsa**,¹ two Jutish chiefs, at **Ebbsfleet**, in the Isle of Thanet. When the Romans went away in the year 426, the Britons of the north, called **Picts**, poured over the two walls, and laid waste with fire and sword the towns in which the Romanised and now less hardy Britons dwelt. They were in league with the **Scots**, a tribe of marauders from Ireland, who were at the same time engaged in harrying the western coast of the island. Thus from three different sides the more civilised Britons were attacked,—from the north and west by their own uncivilised kinsmen, and from the east by Teutons. Pressure of population in Holstein and North Germany, and hunger for land in the younger men, sent the Teutons roving in quest of a new home ; but tradition tells us that one band came over to fight for the Britons on a special invitation. This came, in 449, from **Vortigern**, a British chief, who was hard pressed by the Picts. Hengist and Horsa drove back the invading Picts, and received as their reward the possession of the Isle of Thanet. They sent
Hengist
and Horsa
449. word home to their friends how fertile the land was, and how weak the people ; and thus began the stream of English immigration into the goodly island of Great Britain.

6. The English Immigration.—The young men from the England on the Continent came streaming over in larger and yet larger numbers ; and very soon Hengist and Horsa were obliged to turn their arms against the very men they had come over to help. They cut their way through Kent ; and at a great battle at Aylesford on the Medway, Horsa² fell in the moment of victory. With a burning heathen hate against the Britons, they spared neither age

¹ Both words mean simply *horse*. The arms of Kent are a horse.

² His grave was marked by a flint-heap, which is still called *Horsestead*.

nor sex,¹ they fired the houses and the temples, cut down the priest at the altar, and levelled palaces with the ground. The struggle of the Britons was brave and obstinate; but in eight years Hengist was able to proclaim himself **Lord of Kent**. All this is merely tradition; and no one knows how much historical truth there is in these stories. What is certain is that, from the middle of the fifth century, large numbers of Teutons crossed into this island.

Hengist
Lord of
Kent
457.

7. More English.—For about a century after this, bands of other invaders, chiefly Saxons and Angles, from the continental home of our race—a country which lies in the low flats round the mouths of the Elbe, the Weser, and the Rhine, poured in upon the south and east shores of Britain, drove the British Celts west and north before them, and settled in the richer lands of the plains and lowlands. The Jutes seem to have settled chiefly in Kent and the Isle of Wight; the Saxons in the middle and south of Britain; and the Angles on the eastern coast. Between the middle of the fifth and the end of the sixth century, we find standing out, with greater or less clearness, six or eight kingdoms between the Firth of Forth and the English Channel.

8. The Kingdoms of the English.—Besides the kingdom of Kent, already mentioned, we can trace the kingdom of the **South Saxons**,² which included Sussex and Surrey, and which was founded by **Ella** in 477.—To the west of them lay the kingdom of the **West Saxons**—afterwards called **Wessex**—which included all the counties west of Sussex and south of the Thames, with the exception of Devon, Somerset, and Cornwall, which were still British, and which went under the name of *West Wales*. This kingdom was founded by **Cerdic** in 495.—Between the Humber and the Forth stretched an extensive and strong domain, called the kingdom of **Northumbria**, founded by **Ida** in 547.—The kingdom of the **East Angles** covered what is now called Norfolk, Suffolk, and Cambridge, and was founded by **Uffa** in 575.—The great midland kingdom of the *March-land*,

¹ This did not happen everywhere; for Sir E. Creasy says "By the union of British women with Saxon warriors, the British element was largely preserved in our nation."

² It must be carefully noted that, in the beginning of every kingdom, it receives its name from the people, and their name afterwards passes to the land. We shall see numerous instances of this.

Ruler of all the kingdoms. The three most powerful were **Northumbria, Mercia, and Wessex.**

If we accept the **Heptarchy** as existing for a given time, the seven kingdoms were Northumbria, Mercia, East Anglia, Essex, Sussex, Wessex, and Kent.

10. The Three English Kingdoms.—In the struggle for the overlordship the lead was taken by **Northumbria**; and it held that place from 607 to 685. One of its greatest kings was **Edwin**, who was Overlord of the whole of England except Wessex. His rule was so strong, his will so firm, and his judgments so true and righteous, that it became a proverb in his realm, that “a woman with her babe might walk scatheless from sea to sea in Edwin’s day.” His kingdom was strengthened on

Supremacy
of North-
umbria
607-685.

the north by a fort, which, standing on a bold and picturesque rock, and commanding the neighbouring sea, bears his name to this day—the stronghold or *Burg of Edwin*, or *Edinburgh*. In one word, he was Overlord of the English kingdoms which lay between the Forth and the Thames. The capital of the kingdom was not London, but **York**; its ecclesiastical capital was not Canterbury, but **Lindisfarne**, or *Holy Island*. For one hundred years, political order, religion, and literature had found a home in the kingdom of Northumbria, until it fell in 685, with its king,³ on the bloody field of Nechtansmere, in Fifeshire, while struggling against a strong army of Northern Picts. **Mercia** now rose to the highest place, and kept it from 685 to 823. **Ethelbald** and **Offa** were its two greatest kings. **Ethelbald** styled himself “*King of the Southern English*”; and **Offa** made a clean sweep of the **Welsh**¹—for by that name the English called the British—and for ever put them down. He planted a military colony of Englishmen west of the Severn, drew a strong earthwork from the mouth of the Wye to the mouth of the Dee, from Chepstow to Chester, which went by the name of **Offa’s Dyke**, and forced the Welsh to keep behind it. A few years after the death of **Offa**, **Egbert**,² king of Wessex, marched into Mercia, and compelled it to submit to his overlordship. And now the dominion of a single king stretched at last from the Firth of Forth to the Straits of Dover; and accordingly, **Egbert**,

Egbert
King of
the English
827.

¹ *Wealhas*—foreigners. The same root is found in *Walnut, Walcheren, Wallachia, etc.* It is worthy of special note that, whenever a Teutonic people stand face to face with a foreign people, that foreign people is called by them *Welsh*. Thus the Germans to this day call the French and Italians *Die Weischen*; and an Alsatian, going into France, will say, “I am going into Welshland.”

² The word means *Eyebright*. The *y* in the word *eye* was originally a *g*.

³ The name of the Northumbrian king at the time was *Egfrith*.

King of Wessex, and Overlord of Mercia and Northumbria, took upon himself, for the first time in Britain, the proud title of KING OF THE ENGLISH.¹

THE SAXON KINGDOMS

(Called "The Heptarchy," and by some "The Octarchy").

(i) **Cantware** (Kantia or Kent). Founded 457 by the Jutes under Hengist. It included the isles of *Tenet* (*Thanet*) and *Scepig* (*Sheppey*).

This was the first state founded by an English or "Saxon" tribe, and it was also the first into which Christianity was introduced. In 597 Augustine and his companions landed and settled in *Cantwarabyrig* (Canterbury), the capital. King Ethelbert married a daughter of Charibert, the Christian king of Paris; and it was in his reign that Augustine came over.

Cantwarabyrig=the *byrig* (burgh), *wara* (of the men), *Cant* (of Kent). The word *wara* is the genitive plural of *wer*, a man—an old English word akin to the Lat. *vir*.

(ii) **South Seaxe** (South Saxony or Sussex). It was founded by Ella in 477, and included all Sussex and a large part of Surrey up to the Thames. Capital, *Kingston*.

(iii) **West Seaxe** (West Saxony or Wessex). It was founded in 495 by Cerdic, from whom our Queen Victoria is descended. It grew to include Hants, Berks, Wilts, Dorset, Somerset, Devonshire, and a small part of Surrey. Capital *Wintanceaster* (Winchester).

(iv) **East Seaxe** (East Saxony or Essex). It was founded in 527 by Ercenwin, and included Middlesex, Essex, and a part of Hertfordshire. Capital, *Lundenwic* (London).

Sebert, the king from 597 to 616, built a church on Thorney Island in the Thames, on a site of an ancient Roman temple to Apollo; and this church is now Westminster Abbey. The only other important king was Offa, in 700. But the kings of Essex were generally *Under-Kings*, and paid tribute to some other king as their *Overlord*.

(v) **Bernicia**. Founded by Ida, an Angle, in 547. It included Northumberland, and it stretched from the Tees up to the Firth of Forth, and thus included part of what is now called Scotland.

Deirnas (Deira). Founded by Ella in 560. It included Yorkshire, Durham, part of Lancaster and Westmoreland. These two kingdoms were united, by the marriage of Ida's grandson with the daughter of Ella, into one kingdom, called

Northumbria. Eadwine (or Edwin) was the greatest of the Northumbrian kings, and the most powerful prince of the so-called Heptarchy. His frontier reached the Firth of Forth, where he planted a strong fortress, called Eadwine's Burgh, now Edinburgh. He was owned as Overlord by the whole English race south of the Humber, except Kent; and Kent was connected with him by his marrying the daughter of the king. He embraced Christianity and fell while doing battle against Penda, the great Pagan king of Mercia. Oswi (642-670) was the last of the princes of the "Heptarchy" who held the position and title of *Bretwalda*. Northumbria was long the home of literature and religion in England. In the monastic school founded by Archbishop Egbert,

¹ It must be specially noted that he did not call himself King of *England*. The word *England* did not exist till *Edward*, son of Alfred, took the title of "*King of England*," in 901

the celebrated scholar **Alcuin** was trained, who was invited by Charles the Great (in French, *Charlemagne*) to come and teach his subjects. In Northumbria, also, was the great monastery of Jarrow where **Bæda** ("the Venerable Bede") wrote his "Ecclesiastical History of the English Nation." Here, too, was Lindisfarne, a See founded by **Aidan**, a monk from Iona, of which St. Cuthbert was bishop in 685, and which was for one hundred years the centre of English Christianity, just as York was the centre of politics. In the monastery of Whitby, **Cædmon** (664), the first English (or "Saxon") poet, was a monk; he wrote a poem called "The Creation." Cædmon is the founder of English poetry; Bæda is called by Burke "the father of English learning"; and, on account of his school of six hundred monks, he is called by Mr. Green "the father of our national education."

(vi) **East Engle** (East Anglia). Founded by Uffa in 575. It included Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambridge, and part of Bedfordshire. Capital, Northwic (Norwich).

(vii) **Myrcna** (Mercia). Founded by the Angles under **Crida** in 586. The word means *Marchland* or *Borderland*; and it "marched with" all the other kingdoms, and contained the central and western English counties, from the Dee and the Humber down to the Severn and the Thames. (The western border was long called the *Welsh Marches* ¹) It was the last state founded by the Teutons from the Continent.

The greatest king of this state was Penda (626). Another great king was Offa, the enemy, and then the ally, of Charlemagne.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY OF ENGLISH PERIOD I.

(ENGLAND UNDER ENGLISH KINGS.)

1. English land in Britain,	449
Augustine converts Kent,	597
2. Edwin, King of Northumbria, becomes Bretwalda or Overlord of Britain,	626
(a) St. Aidan settles at Holy Island,	636
(b) Wessex becomes Christian,	639
(c) Cædmon, the first English poet (a monk at Whitby),	664
3. Ethelbald, King of Mercia, conquers Wessex,	733
Death of Bæda (the Venerable Bede),	735
4. First landing of Danes in England,	787
5. Egbert, King of Wessex,	800
(a) He defeats Mercians at Ellandune,	822
(b) He is Overlord of England south of Thames,	823
(c) He is Overlord of all the English kingdoms,	827
(d) He routs the Danes and the Britons of Cornwall at Hengist Down,	836

¹ We have the same word in *Den-mark*, *Finn-mark*, the *Mark* of Brandenburg, and in *marqu's*, *markgraf*, etc.

CHAPTER III.

WESSEX AND THE DANES

1. Wessex and the Danes.—It was out of Wessex, and it was by the labours of the kings of Wessex, that England and the English Constitution, as we find it to-day, mainly grew. Egbert was crowned at Winchester, then the chief city of the English. But he did not long enjoy his new position in tranquillity. The miseries and horrors which the English or Saxons brought upon the British, these the Danes now brought in threefold measure upon the English. They attacked the new kingdom upon two sides: one party sailed up the Thames, and plundered London; another landed at Teignmouth, and swept the shire of Devon. The same terrible sights that had burst upon the panic-stricken eyes of the British, three hundred years before, now amazed the English,—the same line of blazing homesteads and corn-ricks against the midnight sky, the same slaughter of priests,

Battle of Hengist Down 836. women, and infants (some of them tossed from spear to spear by the heathen and bloodthirsty worshippers of Woden), and the same levelling of church and palace with the ground. Egbert defeated them in 836 at the battle of Hengist

Death of Egbert 839. Down, on the Cornish side of the river Tamar; and his son Ethelwulf drove back the British of West Wales, who had marched to effect a junction with them. Egbert¹ died in the year 839, and was buried in the cathedral at Winchester.

(i) Egbert was king of Wessex in 800, and brought all the other kingdoms in England under his rule in 827, and became the first *Bretwalda* who handed down his power to his heir. Before this Mercia had been the most powerful state. Egbert had spent fourteen years at the court of Charles the Great (or, as he is more commonly called, *Charlemagne*). The Britons in Wales and Cumberland were still unsubdued.

¹ "The Ealdorman of a corner of Hampshire thus grew step by step into the King of the West Saxons, the King of the Saxons, the King of the English, the Emperor of all Britain, the lord, in later times, of a dominion reaching into every quarter of the world."—FREEMAN.

The former were called *Wealh*s. The first landing of the Danes in England took place in 787; in 832 they landed in the Isle of Sheppey.

2. Ethelwulf and his Four Sons.—**Ethelwulf** succeeded his father Egbert in 839, and it was in his reign, in the year 855, that the Danes for the first time passed the winter in England. They built a fort and spent the winter months in the Isle of Sheppey. **Ethelwulf** was in turn succeeded by his four sons, **Ethelbald**, **Ethelbert**, **Ethelred I.** and **Alfred**. These four all reigned one after the other. It was during the reign of **Ethelred I.** that the great Danish¹ invasion of Wessex began in 871. This was no longer a series of raids and midnight attacks, of sudden swoops and speedy retreats, but an invasion by host after host,—a steady inflow of Danish heathens, who conquered as they marched, and settled where they conquered. In 870, they had invaded East Anglia, captured its under-king, **Edmund**, offered him his life and kingdom if he would renounce Christianity, and on his refusal bound him to a tree and shot him to death with arrows. He was long known as the martyr St. Edmund; his body upon a tree still forms the central figure upon the church windows of our eastern coast, and the Abbey of St. Edmundsbury was erected over his grave. In five years the Danes had torn Mercia, **Alfred King** Northumbria, and East Anglia from the overlordship of **Wessex** 871. Wessex; and in the same year of 871, the young King **Alfred** (then only twenty-two) ascended the throne with a terribly difficult piece of work in front of him.

(i) **Ethelwulf**, the eldest surviving son of Egbert, succeeded him in 839. He visited Rome, with his youngest son Alfred (afterwards *the Great*), in 855. In the ninth century the intercourse between England and Rome was tolerably frequent. There was in Rome an "English School," and also a quarter where the English visitors resided.—In the Saxon Chronicle, under year 855, we find this of the Danes: "The heathen men for the first time remained this year over winter in Sheppey."

(ii) **Ethelbert's** reign was an almost constant struggle with the Danes. These men especially attacked the monasteries, which were the seats and centres of all the learning of the country. The monasteries, as well as the cathedrals, had schools attached to them, where scholars were admitted without fee. They had also libraries; and many of the monks were engaged in making copies of books in beautiful writing and most exquisite characters upon parchment—the initial letters of each chapter being splendidly illuminated, and the books themselves richly and tastefully bound. The monks also improved the art of agriculture. The towns of Durham, Peterborough, Ely, and others grew out of the monasteries founded there.

¹ The Danes and English were originally one in race, language, and institutions, but the English, or "Anglo-Saxons," had become Christians.

(iii) **Ethelred I.** succeeded in 866, and had all his life to fight with the Danes. Alfred, his brother, was his chief adviser and the principal commander of his army. About this time the word *Earl* (probably borrowed from the Danish *Yarl*) came into use instead of *Ealdorman*.

(iv) The **Danes** (or Northmen, Norsemen, Normans) sailed in their strong long ships into the broad river-mouths, landed, built a fort or stockaded earthwork—to which they might retreat, and from that point laid waste the country, plundered the churches and monasteries, and then sailed home with their booty. In the North of England, they burnt the churches, schools, and libraries, killed the priests and monks, and thus destroyed all learning in that part of the land. The towns in which they settled have the termination *by*, as Derby, Whitby, etc.

They were called *víkings*, or creek-dwellers, from *vík*, a creek, inlet, or bay.

(v) The town of **Bury St. Edmunds** was also called after Edmund, the under-king of East Anglia.

3. Alfred.—Alfred, when a child, had been sent for his education to Rome, where the Pope, Leo IV., had adopted him as his godson. His mother **Osberga**, had early fired him with a love for literature; and though he was throughout his life the victim of an obscure disease and of terrible pains, the intermittent attacks of which left him weak and spent, he earned for himself, by his unceasing labours, the highest place in England as a soldier, a lawgiver, and a scholar. He had not been long upon the throne when he saw that Wessex must fight, not merely for its overlordship over the other kingdoms, but for its own existence. Early in 878, a Danish army, under **Guthrum** of East Anglia, marched suddenly upon Wessex and overran the whole country. Alfred had to flee in disguise, and his army was broken up. He made his way to a small fort which he had built on the Isle of **Athelney**,¹ an island formed at and by² the junction of the Tone and the Parret. From this point he made excursions, often alone, to spy out the strength and the positions of the Danes.

(i) On one of these excursions he stayed for some days at the hut of a neat-herd, who kept the secret of his identity even from his wife. Alfred was one day mending his bow and arrows at the fireside, and the neat-herd's wife asked him to keep his eye on some barley-cakes she was baking, and see that they did not burn. Alfred promised to watch them; but his eyes were filled with his arrows and his bow,

¹ *Ey* is a form of the old English word for water, which was *ea*; and *ealand* meant *island*, or the land in the water. Then *ea*, or *ey*, came itself to mean *island*; and we have it in such words as *Chelsea* (=shingle *ea*); *Anglesea* (=Angles' *ea*); *Battersea* (=St. Peter's *ea*); and *Athelney* (=the *ey* of the *Atheln* or nobles). Milton always writes *iland*; the *s* in our modern *island* is an intruder from *insula*.

² "At and by." When two streams meet, they lose much of their power to carry down mud and stones. Hence, they drop a large quantity; and this deposit of mud and stones, settling under the lee of the tongue of land between the two currents, grows larger and larger, and in time becomes an island. At the confluence of the Blue and White Nile, where Khartoum stands, an island has been formed in this way.

his mind with the miseries and disasters of his kingdom, and he forgot all about the cakes. The good woman, on her return, scolded him terribly, and called him a lazy good-for-nothing; and hinted, in strong old-fashioned English, that though he was very slow in turning the cakes, he would be quick enough in eating them.

(ii) With **Alfred** began the supremacy of **Wessex**. The kings of Wessex, from Alfred to Ethelred, gradually brought all England—Saxon (Essex, Sussex, etc.), Mercian, and Danish—under their own rule, expelled all under-kings, and compelled the Welsh and Scottish Kings to become their vassals. They thus made themselves not only **Kings of England**, but **Emperors of Britain**.

(iii) **Alfred**, before his death, was Overlord of all Britain south of the Humber—English, Danish, Welsh, and Corn-welsh (= Welsh of the Corn or Horn of Land).

4. Defeat of the Danes.—Alfred was often visited in Athelney by his friends, who brought him tidings from time to time of the condition of the country. One day they brought him the news that the Ealdorman (or Earl) of Devon had surprised and defeated a band of Danes under Ubba. Thinking the time for action had come at last,



The Danelagh.

Alfred disguised himself as a minstrel, made his way into the camp of Guthrum, played and sang to the Danes for several days, and picked up a great deal of very useful information. He now called the thanes of Somerset to his standard, put himself at the head of the West Saxon troops, surprised the Danes at a hill in Wiltshire called **Ethandune**,¹ and defeated them

Battle of
Ethandune
878.

¹ Now Edington.

with terrible slaughter. Guthrum and his chiefs submitted to be baptized; a treaty was made at Wedmore, by which the Danes agreed to remain to the east of **Watling Street**,¹ and to be the vassals of King Alfred. And now the Danes were confined to the **Danelagh**; and the land had rest from them for ten years.

(i) **Ethandune** = Edington, in Wiltshire.

(ii) Alfred had the figure of a great white horse cut upon the chalk hill that overlooks the battle-field. There is another white horse above Uffington in Berkshire, said to have been cut after the battle of Ashdown (871).

5. King Alfred at Peace.—Alfred was a king in far more than in name: he was the first man in his kingdom; and he was king in actual fact, by thought and work, as well as by title. He was not only a brave warrior and an able general,—he was also a wise legislator, a diligent literary man, and a hard-working schoolmaster. He was, moreover, the founder of the English fleet, which has ever since been the right arm of the British Empire. He collected, arranged, and classified the old laws or “dooms”² of the English kingdoms; he added to them the Ten Commandments; and he abolished in many cases the old “blood-wite,” or fine for attacks upon the person. He studied for eight hours every day; another eight hours he gave to public business. Among all his hard work, he found or made time to superintend a school for the young nobles of his court. He translated, without assistance, several Latin works,—among others, a book on Universal History, and also a work on English Ecclesiastical History by the Venerable Bede. He may be said to be the father of English prose literature.³ Before his time, the only literature in the English language was in verse. “Prose she had none.” Besides this, he sent to foreign countries and invited over learned men to teach his people; he sent out several expeditions,—one, under a Norwegian skipper, to explore the northern coast of Norway and the White Sea, and another to the Baltic; and he even sent envoys to the Christian Churches of Jerusalem and of India. Thus he was the first man to establish a connection between England

¹ *Watling Street* was the old English or “Saxon” name of the great Roman road, which ran from Dover to Chester. The word means *street of pilgrims*. By the Wedmore treaty, Guthrum accordingly received East Anglia and parts of Mercia and Essex. Another army of Danes held Northumbria. The most renowned of the Danish pirates was one Hastings.

² This is the noun from the verb *deem*—*to judge*. A judge in Old English and Lowland Scotch was called a *dempster*, and his sentence was a *doom*.

³ This title is usually given to Sir John Mandeville (14th cent.); but his English is largely mixed with French words.

and the mighty empire which now forms the largest and most thickly-peopled part of our foreign dominions. All this was done by him in the midst of an every-day battle with pain and weakness and disease, until at last, worn out with work for the good of his people, he died at Farringdon, in Berkshire, in the year 901. Death of
Alfred
901. He was buried in the New Minster at Winchester,—a cathedral which he had himself begun, and which was finished by his son Edward.

(i) Alfred not only built a fleet, he fortified all towns that were exposed to the Danish attacks, and he so organised the *fyrd* (or militia), that one-half of it was always under arms, while the other half was working peacefully in the fields.

(ii) His maxim was that the welfare of a kingdom was dependent on the welfare of the priest, the fighting man, and the farmer.

(iii) Alfred the Great succeeded in 871, but to little more than the mere title of *King*. He was born at Wantage, in Berkshire, in 849. His life falls into two well-marked divisions,—the first of *war*, the second of *peace*. In war, he (1) created a system of militia, (2) erected strong fortresses, (3) fought fifty-six battles, (4) built a fleet of ships twice as long as those of the Danes, and (5) gave up a large part of his own income to works for the benefit of the country. In peace, he (1) had a survey made of the country—the record of it is the “Boke of Winchester;” (2) codified the laws of former princes—in the “Dome Boke” (*Book of Domes or Dooms=Judgments*); (3) established schools, and invited able men from abroad to teach in them; and (4) wrote and “published” many valuable books (chiefly translations).

6. Edward the Elder.—King Alfred was succeeded by his eldest son Edward, called the Elder, to distinguish him from Edward the Confessor. He was an able soldier and a vigorous ruler, and he resolved to reconquer the Danelagh. His sister, Edward the
Elder
901. **Ethelflaed**, the widow of the Ealdorman, and now the “Lady,” of Mercia, a wise and able woman, had conquered and seized upon the Five Boroughs of the Danes,—Derby, Lincoln, Leicester, Stamford, and Nottingham. On her death, he annexed these towns, and also the whole of East Anglia, which was by this time almost purely Danish. He was now not only **King of the English**, but **Emperor of All Britain**; for the Scots and Welsh of Strathclyde—a district which stretched from the Firth of Clyde to Morecambe Bay—owned him for their sovran and overlord.

7. The Northmen.—But the Northmen¹ (Normans, or Norsemen)

¹ These men from the north were all of Teutonic blood; and they had emigrated to Denmark, Sweden and Norway (=North-way). They were so feared in England for several hundred years, that a prayer was introduced into the Litany; “A Northmannis et manibus Northmannorum libera nos, Domine!” “From the Normans, and the hands of the Normans, O Lord, deliver us!”

were destined to be the fate and the rulers of Britain. Under the name of **Danes**, they were its perpetual and never-resting enemies; but under the name of **Normans** they were soon after to become its conquerors and permanent rulers. And, just when Edward was putting down the English Northmen or Danes, a new colony of Northmen was being founded in France, from which the greatest changes and events were one day to spring.

8. Normandy.—This colony was founded by a fierce Norwegian soldier, called **Rolf¹ the Ganger**. He was called **Ganger** or **Walker**, because, when he strode across one of the small cream-coloured Norwegian horses of his country, his legs were so long that they reached the ground, and he could not ride. This man had kept Charles the Simple, king of the West Franks, and his people in such continual terror, that at last Charles offered him a province and his own daughter in marriage, if he would turn Christian and stop harrying the country. He accepted the offer, and was baptized by the name of **Robert**. He was called Duke or Count Robert of the Northmen; and his province—which embraced the best land on both sides of the Seine, with Rouen as its capital—was called the land of the Northmen, **Terra Northmannorum** or **Normandy**. This happened in the year 911; and exactly one hundred and fifty-five years afterwards, a descendant of Rolf's invaded England and permanently established his dynasty here.

(i) **Edward I.** (the Elder) succeeded his father, Alfred the Great, in 901, and reigned till his death in 925. He received the homage both of Scotland and of Wales.

(ii) In this reign the Northmen (or Danes) turned their attention from England to France, and Rollo (Ralph or Rou) compelled Charles the Simple to cede Normandy to him. (William the Conqueror was the seventh Duke of Normandy. Normans also seized Sicily in the eleventh century.)

¹ Spelled also *Rolph*. It is the same as our *Ralph* or *Ranulphus*. In Latin it became *Rollo*, and in French *Rou*. There is a famous French battle-song called the *Roman de Rou*.

9. Early Scotland.—In the earliest times of which we have any trustworthy knowledge of Scotland, the part north-east of the Forth was called **Pictland**; what we now call Argyll was **Dalriada**; and south of Dalriada stretched the kingdom of **Strathclyde**. The small but fertile region between the Forth and the Tweed was called **Northern Bernicia**. Part of it lying south of the Firth of Forth was

CHAPTER IV.

THE EMPIRE OF BRITAIN AND THE DANISH CONQUEST

1. **Athelstan.**—Edward was succeeded in 925 by his son Athelstan, whom his grandfather, the good King Alfred, had girded with a Saxon¹ sword set in a golden scabbard. In 937, a Danish viking called Anlaf appeared with a fleet in the Humber; and this appearance was the signal for the Danish chiefs of the East and the British chiefs of the West to rise in revolt against the English king. They were joined by Scotland and Strathclyde. Athelstan met them at

Battle of Brunanburgh Brunanburgh,² defeated them with great slaughter, and utterly broke, for his own lifetime, the power of the Danes.

937. Long after, Saxon gleemen sang at banquets, after the nobles had gorged themselves with beef and excited themselves with mead, how the soldiers of Athelstan, "Lord of Earls and Ring-giver to Warriors," fought the livelong day against the Northern men, and "hewed them mightily" with "swords sharp from the grindstone." He annexed Northumberland; and there was again only one **King** in the whole of England. To make clear their claim over Britain, and to assert their independence of the Emperor of the West and the Emperor of the East (on the continent of Europe), Athelstan and his successors styled themselves **Emperors of Britain**. Athelstan died in 940, after a reign of fifteen years.

(i) **Athelstan.** The victory at Brunanburgh brought him such renown that four great princes married his sisters. These were the Emperor Otho of Germany, Charles the Simple of France, Louis, Count of Aquitaine, and Hugues (Hugh), Count of Paris,

¹ This is, the old *seaxe*, short sword, or long knife. "The *sax* is the short chopper used by slaters in cutting and shaping slates. The word is the Saxon *seax*—a short sword. It is still in use in the west of England."—BARTHO-GOULD.

² It is not known where this spot is, but it no doubt lay north of the Humber. Professor Franck Bright says it is near Beverley, in Yorkshire.

the ancestor of the Capet line of French Kings. One of his laws shows his strong desire to encourage commerce : a merchant who had made three voyages with his own ship was to be raised to the rank of a thane. Athelstan was also a promoter of learning, and he had parts of the Scriptures translated into English.

2. Edmund and Edred.—Athelstan was succeeded by his brother **Edmund the Magnificent**.¹ He reigned only six years, and met his death at the hands of a highway robber. The King was keeping the feast of St. Augustine at a small town in Gloucestershire, when there strode into the hall Liofa, a robber, who had been banished the kingdom six years before. Liofa took his seat beside one of the chief earls, and not far from the King himself. “Bid that man go !” said Edmund to his cupbearer. But Liofa only showed his knife. Then the King, in a fury of rage, sprang at and grappled with him. Both fell, the robber undermost ; but the robber had freed his right hand, and with his dagger stabbed the King from below, before he could be stopped by the attendants, who cut him to pieces.—**Edred** succeeded his brother in 946. The only thing which stands out with any clearness in his reign, is the fact that his chief adviser was the great abbot and statesman **Dunstan**.

(i) **Edmund I. and Edred.** Edmund was defeated by the Danish prince Anlaf (Olave), and had to surrender to him all that part of England which lay north of Watling Street. Aided by Malcolm of Scotland, he subdued the Britons of Cumberland, and handed over that country, then called Strathclyde, to Malcolm, to be held as a fief.² In this reign robbery was punished with death. Edred was the brother of Edmund, and was elected to the throne by the Witenagemote, because the sons of the late King were still infants. His chief advisers were Turkeytel, the chancellor (a grandson of Alfred the Great), and Dunstan. In this reign the kingdom of Northumbria was reduced to an earldom.

3. Dunstan.—This great man was born in the hamlet of Glastonbury, early in the tenth century. He had been taught music and the literature of the time by the wandering scholars of Ireland ; and he never went on a journey without his harp in his hand. He became a monk, and—himself an accomplished artist—soon collected round him a large number of pupils, who studied under his kindly care the arts of writing, illuminating,³ designing, and harping. King Edmund had made him **Abbot of Glastonbury**. And now his first and greatest

¹ This word is here used in its first or primary sense of *doer of great deeds*.

² That is, on condition of service in war.

³ This was the art of painting small pretty pictures in books. The beginning or initial letter was generally “illuminated” in bright colours on a gold ground.

ambition was to reform the Church. In the unsettled condition of the country produced by the Danish wars, a lax state of discipline and many abuses had crept gradually into the monasteries.¹ The secular clergy, too,—that is, the parish priests and those who were not monks,—were in many instances not only ignorant, but vicious. Dunstan and his followers, moreover, had always believed in the maxim of the Western Church, that priests ought not to be married ; and this broke up the Church into two bitterly hostile parties. But he was also an enthusiast in education ; and it was a painful reflection, which was always gnawing at his mind, that, since King Alfred died, not a single new book or new translation had been written. He and his friends expelled the secular canons from the cathedrals, established the Benedictine order of monks, founded forty new abbeys, and established good schools in connection with them.

4. Edwy.—Edwy the Fair, the eldest son of Edmund, was chosen king by the Witenagemote, on the death of Edred in 955. He had married a lady called **Elgiva**—a lady who was said by the monks' party to be related to him within the forbidden degrees of marriage. Hence Edwy very naturally took the side of the **seculars** against the **monks**, and found himself in opposition to Dunstan. The country, therefore, began to be neglected in the midst of this violent personal quarrel, and in 957 all England north of the Thames revolted from Edwy and chose his brother **Edgar** as their king. Edwy died soon after, in 959.

5. Edgar the Peaceful.—Edgar, on his accession to the throne, recalled Dunstan, made him Bishop of London, and appointed him as his chief adviser. He afterwards made Dunstan Archbishop of Canterbury. Under these two men, the kingdom had peace both within and without. A strong fleet constantly cruised along the coast ; and shortly after his coronation, Edgar paid a visit to Chester and the North, and his boat was rowed upon the river Dee by eight vassal kings. A wise measure of his killed out the wolves which infested Wales and the borderland. Instead of tribute, he exacted from the Welsh princes a tale² of three hundred wolves' heads every year ; and it is said that by the fourth year not another wolf could anywhere

¹ Building where monks live. A place where nuns live is called a *nunnery*.

² Old English word for *number*. It comes from *tell* (to *count* or *recount*), and is connected with *toll*, *tally*, *teller*, etc. Compare Exodus v. 8, "tale of bricks."

be found. Edgar died in 975, and left behind him two sons, Edward and Ethelred, the sons of different mothers.

(i) **Edwy (955) and Edgar (959).** On the revolt of the Mercians and Northumbrians, Edwy had only Wessex left to him: but Edgar united the whole kingdom under his rule. At his coronation, Edgar promised three things: (1) To secure peace to the Church; (2) to keep down robbery, and (3) To be just "in all dooms." In this reign there was peace—no war either within or without. Edgar kept up a powerful fleet; and he commuted the annual tribute of the Welsh into the yearly payment of three hundred wolves' heads.

(ii) These eight vassal kings were: Five Welsh kings, Kenneth, king of Scots, the Under-king of Cumberland, and the Danish king of the Southern Isles (Sodreyar).

(iii) Edgar gave to Kenneth III., king of Scots, the **Lothians**—which were called "Saxony" by the Celts—to govern, and to be held by him on feudal tenure.

6. Edward the Martyr.—Edgar was succeeded by Edward, a boy of twelve, the son of his first wife. This boy was one day out hunting in the country which lies round Corfe Castle, or, as it was then called, Corfe's Gate. He was riding slowly home, tired and thirsty, when he called at the castle, where his stepmother Elfrida was living. He asked for a cup of wine. His stepmother brought it; and while he was drinking, one of her attendants crept behind and stabbed him in the back. He put spurs to his horse and galloped off; but, fainting for loss of blood, he fell from his saddle, and with one foot in the stirrup, was dragged along by his horse until he died. His little half-brother Ethelred, a boy of ten, burst into tears when he heard of Edward's death, and was beaten about the head by his mother with such persistence that his life was for some time in danger.

7. Ethelrede Unrede.¹—This luckless boy ascended the throne at the age of ten, in the year 979; and before he was yet in his teens, the Danes had recommenced their landings and plunderings and burnings. Dunstan died in 988; and the care of this great country was left to a weak and cowardly lad and a few of his unworthy favourites. This "worthless waverer" and his friends could devise no better plan of meeting the Danes than giving them money to go

¹ This word means *planless*. It is a kind of pun upon his name, which, in Old English, was written *Ethelreia*, was pronounced *Ethelready*, and meant *noble*, or *high in counsel or plan*. But *Unrede* means *without plan*. Thus, *Ethelready Unready* would be the sound it would make to the ears of his subjects. *Noble-plan no-plan* might be a modern equivalent. Richard II. had the same unenviable distinction, being called, alliteratively, Richard the Redeless.

away.¹ Of course they came back again and again, always for more. To pay this money, heavy taxes were laid upon the people, and these taxes were called *Dane-money* or **Dane-gelt**. At last the kingdom had shrunk to the two provinces of Wessex and Kent, and even in Wessex a large colony of Danes had settled. Peace was made with them ; but the peace was hollow and treacherous.

8. The Massacre of the Danes.—Ethelrede's next plan was to massacre the Danes in Wessex. Accordingly, on St. Brice's Day, in 1002, the West Saxons rose on a private signal from the King, and put to death every Danish man, woman, and child. Among the murdered victims was Gunhilda, the sister of the Danish king Sweyn. He, upon the news of this treacherous butchery, swore to drive the witless king—the *planless* ruler—out of his kingdom. For four years he marched across Wessex in every direction, burning and slaying as he went—his path before him marked by blazing farm and burning town, and behind by blackened homesteads and slaughtered men. He withdrew for a bribe at last, but returned not long after. Northumbria and Mercia joined him in his attack upon Wessex ; Ethelred fled to Normandy ; and, in spite of the heroic resistance of London, which beat off the Norsemen four times, the whole country at last submitted to Sweyn.

Massacre
of the
Danes
1002.

Ethelred II. (Unrede) (979).—In 981 the Danes, under Olave (Anlaf) of Norway and Swegen (Sweyn) of Denmark, invaded England. Wulfstan, an English bishop, says : " We are always paying our enemies tribute, and they ravage us daily. They spoil, burn, plunder, and carry off our goods to their ships. Such is their boldness, that one of them will put ten of our men to flight. Two or three will drive a band of captive Christians through the whole country from sea to sea." In the massacre of the Danes on St. Brice's Day, 13th November 1002, English women (who had married Danes), and even children and infants, were killed.

9. Sweyn and Edmund Ironside.—Sweyn was acknowledged King of all England in 1013, but he died in the following year. His son Knut (or, in its Latin form, *Canutus*) succeeded him, but had to fight for his realm with Edmund, the son of Ethelred. Edmund was a brave and tenacious warrior, and his courage and tenacity gained

¹ The tax called *Dane-gelt* (*Dane-money*) amounted to 12d. a year on each hide of land (a hide was 120 acres). It was therefore the first direct land-tax. In 991, 10,000 lbs. of silver was raised as *Dane-gelt* ; in 994, 16,000 lbs. ; in 1001, 24,000 lbs. ; in 1007, 30,000 lbs. ; and in 1010, 48,000 lbs. Silver in those days had probably fifty times the purchasing power that it now has.

for him the title of *Ironside*. After six pitched battles, it was agreed to divide the kingdom; and the share of Edmund was *Wessex, East Anglia, Essex, and London*. On the 30th of November 1016 Edmund died, after reigning only seven months, and Canute now became ruler of all England.

Edmund II. (Ironside) (1016).—This prince reigned only seven months, during which he fought nine battles. By the advice of the Witan, he shared England with Canute; he had Wessex, etc., and Canute Mercia and the North.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY OF ENGLISH PERIOD III.

1. Athelstan "the Steadfast" succeeds,	925
He gains the victory of Brunanburgh,	937
2. Edmund succeeds,	940
Dunstan, Abbot of Glastonbury,	943
3. Eadred succeeds,	946
4. Edwy succeeds,	955
Dunstan banished,	956
5. Edgar succeeds,	959
Dunstan, Archbishop of Canterbury,	
6. Eadward the Martyr succeeds,	975
7. Ethelred the Unready succeeds,	979
(a) Invasion of the Danes under Swegen (Sweyn),	994
(b) Massacre of the Danes,	1002
(c) Swegen master of all England,	1013
(d) Ethelred flees to Normandy,	1014
8. Edmund Ironside succeeds and dies,	1016

CHAPTER V.

THE DANISH KINGS

1. **Canute, 1017-1035.**—Canute, the Dane, was now King of all England. His ambition was to unite Denmark, Norway, Sweden and England under his own rule, and for this purpose he did all he could to make the English his friends. He had the eye to see that what the country wanted was justice and good government; and he was fair-minded enough to give equal measure to conqueror and conquered—to Dane and to Englishmen. He gathered round him a bodyguard of *house-carls*—paid soldiers, which was the nucleus of a standing army. He erected four great earldoms or governments,—**Mercia, East Anglia, Wessex, and Northumberland.**¹

2. **Canute and Religion.**—He became also the fast friend of the Church. He gave costly gifts to the religious houses, made the road to Rome safe for English pilgrims, and protected English bishops against the exacting claims of the Popes. There is an old ballad which tells of his affection for religious observances :—

“Merrily sang the monks of Ely
As Cnut the King was passing by:
'Row, boatmen, nearer,' said the King,
'And let us hear these sweet monks sing.'”

He himself made a pilgrimage to Rome; and from there he wrote a letter to the English people, full of noble feeling and justness of thought. “I have vowed to God,” he says, “to govern my kingdoms with equity, and to act justly in all things.” And he adds, “I have no need that money be heaped together for me by unjust demands.” The story of how he rebuked his courtiers agrees with the religious character of the later part of his life.

¹ Northumberland now extended only from the Humber to the Tweed, Northern Northumberland (then called *Lothian*) was held by the King of Scots, and thus grew gradually to be a part of Scotland.

His courtiers vied with each other in flattering him in the highest degree as the greatest of kings and the most powerful of lords,—that the powers of earth, sea, and sky were at his feet, and that he had but to speak to be obeyed. “Place my throne upon the sea-shore,” he said. Then he spoke in a loud voice, and bade the waves retire and know their supreme master; but the tide kept rolling in, and dashed upon his feet and royal robes. Then said Canute, turning to his flatterers: “Empty and worthless is the power of kings; there is but one King, He whom heaven and earth and sea obey, the King of kings and Lord of lords.” And, taking his crown from his head, he sent it to the cathedral at Winchester, where it was placed upon the crown of thorns, in tribute and in token of submissive loyalty to his Maker, and he never wore it any more.

3. England at peace.—The greatest gift of Canute to the people of England was the gift of peace. With his reign began a peace in the island which was unbroken for nearly two hundred years. With two exceptions—the short, quick struggle of the Norman Conquest, and the war under Stephen—England enjoyed unbroken repose. Of no other kingdom in Europe could this be said. Canute died in his fortieth year, and left Norway to Sweyn, Denmark to Hardicanute, and England to Harold Harefoot or Harold I.

Canute (1017-1035).—He was only twenty when the Witan elected him as king. He married Emma, the widow of Ethelred II. By the aid of English troops, under the command of Earl Godwin, he conquered Sweden. (Godwin obtained from him in marriage Gytha, the sister of Ulf-Jarl, his brother-in-law.) Canute was thus one of the most powerful sovereigns in Europe—King of England, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. He constructed the road or causeway called the “King’s Delf,” between Peterborough and Ramsey. The children of Edmund Ironside were sent to Hungary. Here Edward, the eldest son, commonly called “Edward the Outlaw,” married a daughter of the Emperor Henry II. The children of this marriage were Edgar Atheling and two daughters, one of whom, Margaret, became the wife of Malcolm III. of Scotland. A daughter of hers, Matilda, married Henry I. of England.

4. Harold I. and Hardicanute.—During the reign of Harold I. (1035-1040), Alfred, the son of King Æthelred and the brother of Ironside, landed in the island from Normandy, and attacked the Danish troops. He was completely defeated; every tenth man was put to death, and the rest sold into slavery. He himself had his eyes torn out, and was cast forth to die. On the death of Harold, Hardicanute (1040-1042) was elected king by the Great Council of the Wise. He was even more savage than his brother. He had the dead body of Harold dug up and thrown into a morass. The London Danes piously carried the corpse to their own burying-ground; and the name of the church in the Strand—*St. Clement Danes*—records

the fact to the present day. Hardicanute died "as he stood at his drink in the house of Osgood Clapa,¹ at Lambeth." And so ended the rule of Danish kings in England.

(i) **Harold I. (Harefoot) (935-1040).** He was the son of Canute by his first wife, Ælfgifu; and he received his surname of *Harefoot* from his swift running. This succession was contrary to the promise made by Canute to the English, that his sons by Emma only should succeed him. The Archbishop of Canterbury refused to crown him; but, placing the crown on the altar, he said, "I will neither give it thee, nor withhold thee from taking it; neither will I bless thee, nor shall any bishop hallow thee upon this throne of England."

(ii) **Hardicanute (1040-1042).** He was the son of Emma, and, on his landing from Denmark, he was elected king at once and without opposition. In this reign Godwin and his sons ruled over all the south of England, from Norfolk to Cornwall.

5. Scotland.—The first sign of a feudal connection between England and Scotland is to be found in the year 945, when Edmund, king of Wessex, conquered Cumberland, and gave it to Malcolm I., king of Scots, to be held by him on military tenure—that is, on condition of Malcolm's giving aid to Edmund in war.—The next step in this connection occurs in 972, when Edgar, "King of all the English," grants Lothian to Kenneth III., king of Scots, to be held by Kenneth as "the man" of Edgar.—In 1018 we find Malcolm II. fighting with the Northumbrians, and, by his victory at **Carham**, gaining the Tweed as the southern boundary of Scotland.—It is only at this point that the history of Scotland becomes at all clear. The grandson of Malcolm II., **Duncan I.**, began to reign in 1034. He was slain in battle by **Macbeth**, the Mormaor of Ross and Moray, whose territories he had invaded. Macbeth seized the throne in 1040 and reigned till 1057—a period of seventeen years. But, in the year 1054, Duncan's son **Malcolm**, who had obtained the aid of his uncle Siward, Earl of Northumbria, invaded Scotland and fought a battle with Macbeth near Dunsinane. The result of the battle is not known. Macbeth had no children; and he was succeeded by **Malcolm III.**, called also **Canmore** (or Big-head).

(i) Shakespeare has made a very different story out of the one simple fact that Macbeth usurped the throne. His wife's name was Gruoch. They had a peaceful and prosperous reign. They greatly helped the Church in Scotland; sent contributions to the Pope; and Macbeth was indeed the first King of Scots who ever stood in direct communication with Rome.

(ii) **Duncan I.** married a sister of the Danish Siward, Earl of Northumbria.

¹ From the name *Clapa* or *Olapha* comes *Clapham*, now a suburb of London.

PLAN OF DATES

THE FIRST TEN CENTURIES

A.D.	10	20	30	40
				43 Aulus Plautius to Britain. 44 Aulus Plautius Roman Governor 47 Vespasian Governor

100			209 The Emperor Severus begins reign	
110	120 121 Hadrian builds a wall between the Tyne and the Solway Firth.	130	210 211 Severus dies at York (Eboracum).	
140 Lollius Urbicus builds "Wall of Antoninus" along Agricola's line of forts (139).	150	160	240	
170	180 184 Caledonians cross the Wall of Antoninus. Marcellus, Roman Governor, repulses them.	190	270 Constantine Roman Governor.	284 Constantine "Constantine the Great" Shore.

400				
410 (Rome is sacked by the Goths.) Honorius frees Britain from its allegiance.	420 426 All Roman troops withdrawn from Britain.	430	510	Arthur legendary British king 527 King of the Britons
440 446 "The Groans of the Britons." 449 Saxons invited by Vortigern to fight against the Picts. Beginning of the Kingdom of Kent.	450	460	540 547 Kingdom of North- umbria begun.	
470 477 Ella founds the King- dom of Sussex.	480	490 495 Cerdic founds the Kingdom of Wessex.	570 Uffa founds the Kingdom of East Anglia 575.	582 Cerdic King of Wessex

700			802 EGBEE	
710	720	730 731 Death of the Vener- able Bede.	810	825 Egbert Mercian 826 Northumbria Supremacy
740	750 757 Offa, King of Mercia. Supremacy of Mercia.	760	840	855 First men in 858 ETH ETH ETH
770 770 Offa's Dyke from the Dee to the Wye—against the Welsh of North Wales.	780 787 First Invasion of the Northmen. Three ships visit Dorsetshire.	790 794 Peter's Pence granted by Offa. 796 Death of Offa.	870 871 Battle of Ashdown. ALFRED THE GREAT. 877 The Northmen take Mercia. 878 Peace of Wedmore. England, north of Watling Street, goes to the Danes.	Alfred the Great

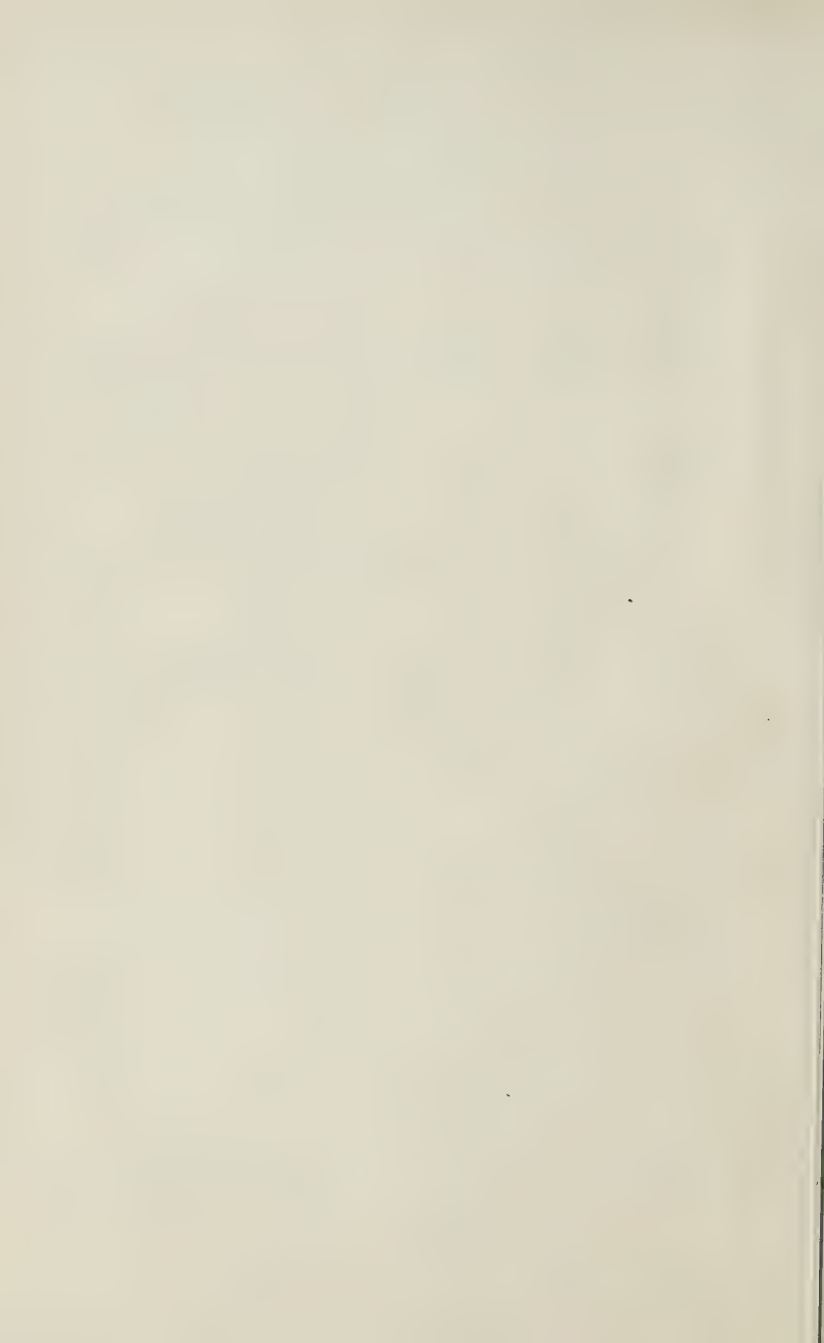
N CENTURIES

50	60	70	80	90
Defeat of Caractacus. 53 Suetonius Roman Governor.	61 Suetonius conquers the Druids of Mona. Boadicea defeated.	78 Agricola Roman Governor. He completes the conquest of Britain.	81 Agricola reaches the Tay. 83 He builds forts from Forth to Clyde. Defeat of Galgacus.	

stone alongside of Hadrian's Wall.		300 305 St. Alban the first Christian martyr in Britain. 306 Constantine proclaimed Roman Emperor in Britain.		
	230	310	320	330
	260	340	350	360 Picts and Scots (an Irish tribe) invade South Britain.
created the Saxon	290	370	380	390

		600		
	530	610 617 Edwin, king of Northumbria, becomes Bretwalda of all England, except Kent.	620 627 Edwin baptized by Paulinus, who becomes first Archbishop of York.	630 633 Battle of Hatfield, in which Edwin is killed by Penda, king of Mercia.
the Eng- shire. of Essex.	560	640	650	660
	590 597 Ethelbert, king of Kent, converted by Augustine, who becomes first Archbishop of Canterbury.	670	680 685 King of Northumbria defeated and killed by the Picts. The supremacy of Northumbria comes to an end. 688 Ine, king of Wessex, publishes his laws.	690

of Wessex.		900 901 EDWARD THE ELDER. 907 Edward's sister, Ethelfleda, the "Lady of the Mercians," fortifies Chester.		
	830 836 Battle of Hengist Down. 839 Death of Egbert. ETHELWULF.	910 Valley of the Seine seized by Rollo the Northman. Then called Normandy. 918 Mercia is annexed to Wessex.	920 925 Death of Edward the Elder. ATHELSTAN. 926 Cornwall, Scots, South Welsh, and Northumbrians swear allegiance to him.	930 937 Battle of Brunanburgh.
the North- seppoy). elwait. LD), , and I.	860 865 The Northmen first bought off in Kent.	940 EDMUND. 945 He gives Cumberland to Malcolm, king of Scots. 946 EDRED. Rise of Dunstan.	950 955 EDWY. 956 Banishment of Dunstan. 959 EDGAR, "King of All the English." Dunstan recalled.	960 Dunstan Archbishop of Canterbury and Prime Minister.
the Laws.	890 897 Alfred builds a new fleet.	970 972 Edgar grants Lothian to Kenneth, king of Scots. 975 EDWARD "the Martyr." 979 ETHELRED II.	980 980 Danish Invasions again. 988 Death of Dunstan.	990 991 Battle of Maldon. First payment of Danegelt. 994 Sweyn and Anlaf ravage the South of England.



CHAPTER VI.

THE CONFESSOR AND THE GODWINS

Edward the Confessor (1042-1066). He was the second son of Æthelred II. and Emma; and he thus restored the Saxon line. (His eldest brother, Alfred, had been murdered at Guildford by Earl Godwin.) But this king married Edith, "the fair rose," Godwin's daughter. His rule was so just that the promise to observe "the laws of the good King Edward," was added to the coronation oath of the kings of England. He was the first prince who used a seal—a custom borrowed by him from the Frankish kings.

1. Edward the Confessor, 1042-1066.—The old English line of Cerdic was restored by the election of Edward,¹ the second son of Æthelred and Emma. Edward was foreign in his habits and manners, in his ways of thinking, in his feelings, and in his language. He spoke the language called Norman-French, and introduced this language into his court. But his policy and inclinations had a strong opponent in Godwin, the great and powerful Earl of Wessex. Earl Godwin had married Gytha, sister of Ulf, the brother-in-law of Canute. There were then two parties in England,—the foreign or king's party, and the English or native party; and Godwin was the head of the English party. In time Godwin gained the upper hand, and at length concentrated within his own family all the power of the kingdom. Besides, he had induced Edward to marry his daughter Edith.

2. Exile of Godwin, 1051.—Eustace, Count of Boulogne, who had married the King's sister, on his way back from a visit to his brother-in-law, stopped at Dover and demanded food and quarters for his train. A quarrel arose between the men of Boulogne and the men of Dover, and blood was shed and lives were lost on both sides. King Edward, in a terrible rage, ordered Godwin to go down and punish the men of

¹ *Edward means oath-keeper*

Dover, who belonged to his earldom.¹ But Godwin refused, and demanded a fair trial for the Kentish men. The trial was granted; but Earl Godwin found himself arraigned before the Witan along with his own people as a criminal at the bar. He at once called his men together and marched upon Gloucester; but the country did not support him, and he had to retire into Flanders. In less than a year, however, the nation came to see that Godwin was the one statesman in the country who stood between England and the yoke of foreigners; and, on the appearance of his fleet in the Thames, the foreign party fell to pieces. The Norman bishops and knights fled across the sea, and Godwin's power was greater than ever it had been before. But he died two years after, 1053.

3. Earl Harold as Prime Minister.—On the death of his father, Earl Harold succeeded to all his power,—power now unhampered by the difficulties with which his father had struggled so long; and for twelve years he was the real ruler of the kingdom. Under his management the country grew in wealth, prosperity, and happiness,—happiness based upon just laws and just decisions. The only people in the island who gave any trouble were the Welsh; and after several victories over them, he reduced them to quietness and subjection. King Edward died in 1066, just after he had completed the building of a cathedral on an island in the Thames. This cathedral was called the West Minster.² King Edward had spent his time chiefly at his prayers, in building churches, and in collecting relics; and the work of managing and ruling the country had been done for him by Earls Godwin and Harold. On his deathbed he is said to have named Harold as his successor.

4. The House of Godwin. Harold as King, Jan. 5—Oct. 14, 1066.—Harold II. was elected³ king by the Witan on the very day King Edward died; and on the following morning, the dead king was buried and the new king crowned in a chapel of the West Minster. But Harold was not destined to gain quiet possession of a

¹ He was Earl of Kent as well as of Wessex. A part of the land which formed his estates was gradually encroached on by the sea, and the bank off Ramsgate is hence known by the name of *Godwin Sands*.

² The present cathedral was built by Henry III. and Edward I.

³ It ought to be remembered that the Witenagemote had always held the right to choose the king, but they generally chose him out of the royal family. Harold was the first man not of royal blood ever chosen.

throne the work of which he had done—and done well—for the last twelve years. He had to reckon with the most terrible and determined foe in Europe. William, the great Duke of Normandy, was the man of all Europe who, in addition to a will which no difficulties could daunt, had the craftiest and most patient mind, and the largest aims in statesmanship. Descended from the fierce Scandinavian pirates, a giant in height, of enormous strength, savage in manners, furious in anger, and remorseless in revenge, he was a strong ruler by his own personal strength and weight, as well as by descent. “No knight under heaven was William’s fear; no man could bend his bow.” William was hunting when the news came of Harold’s accession. He returned to his palace speechless with rage. For Edward had promised to Duke William the succession,—or at least the right first to present himself for election to the Wise Men; and Harold, when wrecked on the coast of Normandy, had been forced, as the price of his ransom, to swear upon the bones of a saint to support the claim of the Duke to the throne of England.

5. Preparations for Invasion.—Duke William lost no time. He sent to Rome for the blessing of the Pope; and Alexander II.¹ presented him with a consecrated² banner, and declared him the lawful claimant. He had to treat with his quarrelsome barons; to send all over France for men and money; to cut down trees and build vessels; and to keep foreign powers from intermeddling with his designs. At last he was ready, and he set sail from St. Valéry³-sur-Somme on the 27th of September.



6. Invasion of Harold Hardrada.—But the subjugation of England was due not so much to the Normans, as to an invasion from the north which did more than half their work for them. Harold Hardrada (that is, *Stern-in-Counsel*), king of the Norwegians, had

¹ This was done by the influence of the great Hildebrand,—then only an archdeacon, but afterwards Pope Gregory VII.,—who saw in this an opportunity of bringing the Church of England under Rome.

² Blessed by the Pope.

³ On the river Somme, near Boulogne.

been induced by Harold's own brother Tostig to attack England. Tostig had been deposed and outlawed for his cruel and tyrannical government of Northumberland. The Norwegian host landed on the coast of Yorkshire. Harold marched day and night along the Roman road from London to York, and on the 25th of September he met the enemy at **Stamford Bridge**. He utterly overthrew them, and Harold Hardrada and Tostig were among the slain. But three days after, William of Normandy had landed in Sussex.

7. The Battle of Senlac or Hastings.—King Harold held a great feast at York in honour of this victory ; but, in the middle of the feast, a thane of Sussex appeared with the terrible news that sixty thousand Normans had landed at Pevensey,¹ and were laying waste the south coast. Harold had now to march back with all speed from York to Hastings, and to send messages to all parts of England for men to help him. They came in thousands from every county, except from the earldoms of Northumberland and Mercia, where Edwin and Morcar ruled. Harold marched his army to within a few miles of Hastings, and took up a very strong position on a low spur of the Sussex downs. This low hill runs into the surrounding plain, not far from the little town now called *Battle*. Harold dug a trench round the top of it, placing the dug-out earth next his men ; and this mound of earth he stuck full of thick posts or stakes. Thus a strong stockade or palisade was raised round the plateau on the top of the hill. The Normans took up their position at a place called Telham.

8. October the Fourteenth, 1066.—The task before the Normans was to take this hill. The archers were to let fly their arrows among the English ; the heavy-armed foot were to march up the slope and cut down the stockade, and then the Norman horsemen were to pour in through the gap. The English fought, as always, on foot ; the Norman knights on horseback. King Harold stood between the Golden Dragon of Wessex and his own royal standard, with his brothers Gyrth and Leofwine on either hand. Duke William rode in the centre of his army with his two half-brothers, Odo and Robert. The battle was begun by a minstrel-knight called **Taillefer**,² who

¹ About fifteen miles from Hastings.

² The word means literally *cut-iron*, that is *sword-smith*. It appears in modern English as the proper name *Telfer*.

cantered out in front, chanting a war-song, whirling his sword into the air, and catching it again by the heavy hilt. He was soon cut down, and the battle had now fairly begun. Amid shouts from the Normans of "*God us aid!*"¹ and from the English of "*God Almighty!*" and "*Holy Cross!*" the Norman foot and the Norman knights charged up the hill, and tried again and again to break down the barricade. Again and again they were beaten back, with thrusts from javelins and heavy blows from the two-handed battle-axes of the English. Harold himself cut down horse and rider at a single blow. A cry ran through the Norman ranks that Duke William was killed. In a transport of rage he tore the helmet off his head, and shouted in a voice of thunder, "I live, I live, and by God's help I will yet win the day!" Mad with anger, he spurred straight at the royal standard, broke his way right through to Harold, and, though unhorsed, struck down with his heavy mace the two brothers of the King. Again the tide of battle swayed to and fro.

9. The Stratagem of William.—At last Duke William bethought him of a stratagem. He ordered his men to turn and flee; and the English, thinking that the day was theirs, poured in one unbroken stream from their stronghold on the hill, and followed hard after the fugitives. Suddenly the Duke gave the signal to face about; the broken line of the English was easily cut to pieces, and with one strong rush the Normans made themselves masters of the central table-land. This was at three o'clock. But the kingdom was not yet won or lost. At six, the house-carls of Harold stood steadily and stubbornly at bay round their King and his standard, and charge after charge of the Norman knights was beaten back. The Duke now brought up his archers, and ordered them to shoot up into the air, "that the arrows might fall like bolts from heaven." This ended the battle. The King fell, pierced through the eye with a long Norman shaft, and four knights rushed in and finished him. So perished the last English king of the English, and in this way did Duke William win the battle of Hastings.

Harold II. (1066). He was the second son of Earl Godwin. The heir to the throne, so far as descent could constitute a claim, was Edgar the Atheling, a grandson of Edmund Ironside, whose father had been recalled from Hungary by the Con-

¹ In Norman-French, "*Dieu nous aide!*"

fessor. But Harold had made himself very popular by his conquest of the Welsh, and by his just dealings with Northumbria, when he took this great earldom away from his own brother, Tostig, who had ruled harshly and tyrannically, and given it to Morcar. The Witan therefore passed over Edgar, who was a mere boy.

10. The Sequel.—William, a few days after, marched through Canterbury upon London. The Witan, upon the news of Harold's death, chose Edgar the Atheling, a grandson of Edmund Ironside, as the King of England. He was accepted by the two great Earls Edwin and Morcar; but a skilful movement of the Duke's compelled these men to retreat to their earldoms, and London opened its gates to **William the Conqueror**. On Christmas Day 1066 he received the crown from the hands of the Archbishop Aldred, of York, amidst shouts of approval from his English subjects. William was now King of England; but there was no change in law, custom, or constitution. He tried to learn English, that he might in person administer justice to his subjects; but he found the harsh, guttural tongue—as it then was—too difficult and too ungenial for a rough, unlettered soldier of forty. Three months after the Battle of Senlac, thinking the kingdom and the people in a state of complete tranquillity, William set out for his own home, and left England in charge of his brother Odo, the Bishop of Bayeux,¹ and his minister, William Fitzosbern.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY OF ENGLISH PERIOD IV.

(ENGLAND UNDER FOREIGN KINGS, 1017-1066.)

1. Canute king,	1017
(a) Godwin, Earl of Wessex,	1020
(b) William of Normandy born,	1027
(c) Canute dies,	1035
2. Harold and Hardicanute divide England,	1035
(a) Harold dies,	1040
(b) Hardicanute dies,	1042
3. Edward the Confessor succeeds,	1042
(a) Godwin banished,	1051
(b) William of Normandy visits England,	1052
(c) Harold Earl of Wessex,	1053
4. Harold king,	1066
(a) Victory of Stamford Bridge, September,	1066
(b) Defeat at Senlac, October 14th,	1066
5. William of Normandy king,	1066

¹ A town in Normandy, well known for the Bayeux tapestry—a series of pictures of the battles and other events of Duke William's invasion, worked in needlework, by his wife Matilda and her ladies.

ENGLAND IN SAXON TIMES.

1. The Land.—The surface of England looks, in this twentieth century, like one great well-tended and carefully cultivated garden. But, a thousand years ago, it was something very different. It was a wild country, with dense forests, wide moors, vast fens, swamps and marshes; and the waste land was the rule, the cultivated land the small and rare exception. The roads were footpaths or bridle-paths; and the only roads worthy of the name were those that had been constructed by the Romans. In the ninth century, there were not five acres in every hundred under cultivation; in the twentieth, eighty in every hundred is cultivated and yields excellent crops.

CONTRAST :

NINTH CENTURY.		TWENTIETH CENTURY.	
Waste-land, . . .	80 per cent.	Waste-land, . . .	10 per cent.
Total cultivable area, .	5,000,000 acrs. s.	Total cultivable area,	25,000,000 acres.

(i) "An enormous amount of the country still remained overgrown with wild forest. The whole weald of Kent and Sussex, the great tract of Selwood in Wessex, the larger part of Warwickshire, the entire Peakland, the central dividing range between the two seas from Yorkshire to the Forth, and other wide regions elsewhere, were covered with primeval woodlands. . . . The bear still lurked in the remotest thickets; packs of wolves still issued forth at night to ravage the herdsman's folds; wild boars wallowed in the fens or munched acorns under the oakwoods; deer ranged over all the heathy tracts throughout the whole island; and the wild white cattle, now confined to Chillingham Park, roamed in many spots from north to south. Hence hunting was the chief pastime of the princes and ealdormen when they were not engaged in war with one another or with the Welsh. Game, boar-flesh, and venison formed an important portion of diet throughout the whole Early English period, up to the Norman conquest, and long after."—GRANT ALLEN.

(ii) The productive area of England in the present century amounts to 80 per cent. of the whole; of Wales, to 60 per cent.; of Ireland, to 74 per cent.; and of Scotland, to only 28·8 per cent.

(iii) Less barley and oats is now grown in Great Britain; and a much greater breadth of land lies in permanent pasture.

2. Enclosures.—As land was won from the waste, and brought under cultivation, it was enclosed by a wall, a hedge, or a fence. The suffixes of names which we find everywhere—such as **ton**, **ham**, **worth**, **stoke**, **fold**, **burgh**, **bury**—all convey the notion of enclosure and fencing-in. These enclosures still exist in our country; and the contrast of England parcelled out into little fields, parks, crofts, and gardens is very great when compared with the surface of France, which consists of wide plains, where there is not a wall or hedge or fence to be seen.

(i) "England is pre-eminently the land of hedges and enclosures. On a visit to the Continent almost the first thing the tourist notices is the absence of the hedge-rows of England."—ISAAC TAYLOR.

(ii) **Ton** (like German *Zaun*) meant originally a hedge, or a place surrounded by a hedge. In Scotland, the farm-steading is still called the *town*. "In some parts of England the rickyard is still called the *barton*—that is, the enclosure for the *bear* or crop which the land *bears*." We have *ton* in Appleton, Workington, Southampton, etc.

(iii) **Ham** is another form of the word *home*; we find it in Ham, Nottingham, etc.

(iv) **Worth** means a place *warded* or protected. It is found in Kenilworth, Tamworth, Bosworth, Wandsworth, etc.

(v) **Stoke** means a place *stockaded*—or surrounded by *stakes*, *stocks*, or piles. This suffix is found in Stoke, Basingstoke, etc. A softened form is *Stow*; and the form *stol* is also found, as in Bristol, which was formerly Brigstow—the *place of the bridge*.

(vi) **Fold** was a place fenced in by *felled* trees.

(vii) **Burgh** (the southern and western form is *bury*) comes from the Anglo-Saxon verb *beorgan*, to hide. *Burgh* is the Anglian form; *bury*, the Saxon.

3. Tenure of Land.—The English people were a nation of yeomen dwelling on their own land—of **franklins** or **freeholders**. Kinsmen of the same family lived in villages for mutual support and protection; and each village was called by the family name—**Billingham** being the home of the Billings, **Woolsingham**, of the Woolsings; and so on. The land held by these villages was of two kinds—tilled land and pasture. The arable land was divided every year, so that each family might take its turn. The pasture-land was held in common for the use of the oxen and horses of the village community. The business of the village was transacted at the **village-moot** or meeting of the heads of families, which took place under some great tree; and the chief officer of the village, who was always **elective**—as is to-day the case in Switzerland, was the **village-reeve**.

(i) **Folkland** was the land held in common by the nation. Parts of it could be given to private persons by the King, but only with the consent of the Witan.

(ii) **Bocland** was land held by *boc* (book) or charter. When a piece of folkland was given to a thane or earl or private person by the King, it became *bocland*—as the right to it was conferred by *boc* or charter.

4. The Hundred.—A number of families—varying from 100 to 120—were grouped into one corporate body, which was called a **hundred**. Each household in this body sent up at least one armed man to the militia or **fyrð** of the district.—The meeting of the hundred was called the **hundred-moot**; it met four times a year; all disputes were settled in it and all criminal cases tried. The chairman of the hundred-moot was called the **hundred-man** or **hundred-elder**.

(i) **Wapentake** (=taking of weapons for inspection or review by the leader) is the equivalent for **hundred** in the Anglian districts, Yorkshire, Lincolnshire, etc. It is a Danish name.

(ii) The term **hundred** very soon became the mere name of a division. "What was **once** a number is now a name only."

5. The Larger Units.—The meeting of the whole tribe or small nation was called the **Folk-moot**. It was held twice a year, and was presided over by the **King**. This Moot made laws, decided on war or peace, elected or deposed their king, and settled the larger disputes between villages or hundreds. Every point was settled by the voice or by the vote of the freeholders, all of whom could attend this parliament of their nation.—When the smaller kingdoms were subdued and united into one larger kingdom, the meeting of the freeholders of the larger kingdom became to a large extent **representative**, and therefore only the greatest men came together, who were called the **Wise Men** or **Witan**. This meeting was called the **Wise Men Moot** or the **Witenagemote**.

6. The Witenagemote.—The Witenagemote, or Parliament of Saxon England, was formed of the nobles and the higher clergy; and it dealt with matters which concerned the whole nation. It was also called the **Micyl Gemot** or “Great Moot.” It met regularly at Easter, Whitsuntide, and Christmas; but it might also be summoned at other times for special reasons. Its most important right and prerogative was the power of electing a king.

Under the **Witenagemote**, the **Folk-moot** might remain as the assembly and chief court for the smaller kingdoms.

7. King, Ealdormen, and Thanes.—The **King** was the president of the **Folk-moot**, the leader of the nation in war; and, when he was a **Head-King**, with under-kings beneath him, he was the president of the **Witenagemote**. His wife was called the **Queen**; and, in some circumstances, the **Lady** of the people. Next to the **King** came the **Ealdormen**. They were the rulers of shires, the leaders in battle of the military force of their own division, and they sat along with the bishop and the sheriff in the **folk-moot**. They received one-third of all the profits which resulted from fines, rents, and other payments due in the shire.—Inferior both in rank and property to the **Ealdormen** were the **Thegns** (or **Thanes**), who were proprietors of at least five hides of land.

(i) **Cyning** (=son of the Kin) is a word which simply means *Son of the Race*. In the earliest times, when land was held in common, it did not mean **King** of the country, but **King** or **Kinsman** (*the Kinsman par excellence*) of the *People*. The revival of this feeling in later times is shown in such titles as “**King** of the Belgians” “**Emperor** of the French,” “**German Emperor**,” etc. etc.

(ii) The **King's Thegn** was superior to the ordinary territorial thegn.

(iii) When a thegn became possessed of 40 hides of land, he was entitled to the **werigild** and rank of an earl.

8. The People.—There were three classes among the people: **Eorls**, **Ceorls**, and **Theows**, or “gentle,” “simple,” and slaves. The two first of these classes were freemen: the last were serfs. There

were four kinds of theows : those born in slavery—the born-slaves ; those taken captive in war—who were often Britons ; those who had sold themselves to escape starvation and death ; or those who had been sold because they could not pay their debts or the fines they had incurred. Each freeman had a “man-price” or *wer-gild*, a certain sum which had to be paid by the murderer either to his kinsmen or gild-brethren. The theow had no legal rights, and no *wer-gild* as such ; but the person who killed him had to make good the value of him to his master. The *wer* of a *ceorl* was 200 shillings ; the *wer* of an ordinary thane, 600 ; the *wer* of a King’s thane, 1200 shillings. The *wer* of an ealdorman was double that of a King’s thane ; while the *wer* of the King was 7200 shillings, or three times that of an ealdorman. Most freemen lived on their own land ; but a landless freeman became a smith or a carpenter, a fisherman, a merchant, or an agricultural labourer.

(i) *Eorl* meant simply “a man of noble blood.” In the time of Ethelred, it was spelt and pronounced *earl* (and confused to some extent with the Danish *jarl*). It superseded the title of *ealdorman*.

(ii) *Wer* means *man* ; and we find it in the genitive case in *Cant-wara-byrig*=the borough of the men of Kent (Canterbury).

9. Law and Justice.—Courts of justice were held in the open air, and generally on rising ground where all who attended could hear what was said. A man accused of crime could clear himself in one of two ways : by *compurgation*, or by *ordeal*. By the first method, the accused brought a number of persons called “compurgators,” who either bore witness to his general good character, or swore to his innocence of the particular crime, or both. The number of compurgators varied with the seriousness of the offence charged, and also with the rank of the accuser and accused. The ordeal was an ordeal by fire or by water. By the first, the accused person carried a piece of red-hot iron three steps, and then threw it down ; by the second, he drew a piece of iron or stone out of a pot of boiling water. If, after the expiry of seven days, the hand or arm was perfectly well, the accused was held to be innocent. Minor offences were punished by fines ; graver offences, by outlawry.

(i) An outlaw was said to “bear a wolf’s head,” and could therefore be lawfully slain, like a wolf, by any one who met him.

(ii) Trial by ordeal was abolished in the end of the twelfth century.

10. Houses, Food, etc.—In the earliest times, a Saxon house was a mud-hut, thatched with straw or twigs, with a hole in the roof to let out the smoke, and holes in the walls to let in the light. Later, Saxon or English houses were built of timber, and were either thatched or tiled. The two chief rooms were the *hall* and *bower*.

The hall was the general living and eating room ; the bower was the room for the women and children. The whole family, masters as well as servants, dined together at noon at one long hall table ; and, as distinctions of rank increased, a kind of trench was cut in the oak-table, which was filled with salt, and the servants had to sit "below the salt." The meat was handed round on spits ; and each person cut off as much as he wanted. Wooden buckets filled with ale or with mead stood on a side-table ; and the drinking-horns or cups were filled at these.—The furniture was of the simplest. Tables on trestles, long benches, large chests with rude carvings for clothes, one or two bedsteads (for the servants slept on the floor or in the out-houses), and a high-backed chair for the master of the house made up the whole.

(i) In houses built of wood the draughts were often very bad. King Alfred, who employed candles to measure his time, had lanterns made for them, so that the draughts might not make them burn too rapidly.

(ii) The word **family** (*familia*=the whole body of *famuli* or servants), in Saxon, as in old Roman times, included the servants of the house as well as the children.

(iii) The Norwegians have still one large family chest, carved and painted, in which the most valuable linen and family property are kept.

11. Language.—The Saxon, Anglo-Saxon, or Oldest English language was a highly inflected speech, much like what German is nowadays. Its nouns and adjectives had four cases ; the verbs were very variously inflected ; and the grammar was highly elaborate and difficult. On the other hand, the vocabulary was very pure ; and except in matters relating to the Church, there was no admixture of any foreign element. The following is a short specimen, with a translation :

THE OLDEST ENGLISH OR ANGLO-SAXON.

Onthere saede his hlaforde, Ælfrede
cyninge, þæt he ealra Northmonna north-
most bude. He cwaeth þæt he bude on
þæm lande northweardum with þa
West-sae.

MODERN ENGLISH.

Onthere said (to) his lord, Alfred (the)
King, that he of all northmen northmost
abode. He quoth that he abode on the
land (that lies) northwards over-against
the Western Sea.

(i) *Hlaforde* and *cyninge* are both in the dative case.

(ii) The letter þ is called "the thorn," and represents the *th* in *that*. The letter ð (an aspirated *d*) represents the *th* in *thin*.

(iii) *Ealra Northmonna* is in the genitive (or possessive) plural. Compare *Witena* the genitive of *Witan*.

(iv) *Cwaeth* is a form of the more modern *quoth*, which we also find in *bequeath*.

(v) *Thaem* is the dative case of *þæt* (that).

(vi) *Northweardum* is the dative plural. The same plural ending is found in *whilom*, seldom.

(vii) *With*=over-against or against. We have the same meaning in *withstand*=to stand against.

12. Literature.—The oldest literature in every nation is always poetry. And so it is with our forefathers the Saxons. The oldest piece of literature in English is the epic poem called the *Beowulf*, which, however, is said to have been brought from the Continent. One of the very oldest English poems in existence is the Ballad of Brunanburgh, which was made on the great victory gained on that field by Athelstan in the year 937. The most striking feature in all Saxon poetry was the kind of rhyme they used. It was not the end-rhyme which we now employ—"the jingling sound of like endings," as Milton called it—but a **head-rhyme**, which consisted in the correspondence of the initial letters of the rhyming words. That is, they rhymed at the beginning, and not at the end. This kind of rhyme is called **alliteration**; and the habit, begun in the very earliest centuries, has so clung to our English poetry that writers like Milton, Tennyson,¹ and Browning employ the device without being at all conscious of it. The following are a few lines—in modern English—from the Ballad of Brunanburgh :—

Athelstan King,	lord of Earls
Bestower of bracelets	and his brother eke,
Edmund the Etheling	honour eternal
Won in the slaughter	with edge of the sword
By Brunanbury.	The bucklers they clave
Hewed the helmets	with hammered steel. ²

Later on, prose was written. Baeda ("the Venerable Bede") translated into English the Gospel of St. John; and King Alfred himself turned into the mother-tongue a number of Latin books, among them Bede's "Ecclesiastical History." But the chief monument of the pure Anglo-Saxon literature is the **Anglo-Saxon Chronicle**. This Chronicle was begun, it is said, by Alfred, was written in English by Englishmen; and it is "the oldest history of any Teutonic race in its own language."

(i) The **Anglo-Saxon Chronicle**, begun in the reign of Alfred, continued till the reign of Stephen, and "breaks off abruptly in the year 1154 with an unfinished sentence."

(ii) "There are several manuscript versions of the Chronicle, belonging to different abbeys."

¹ The following is a good example from Tennyson's "Day Dream":—

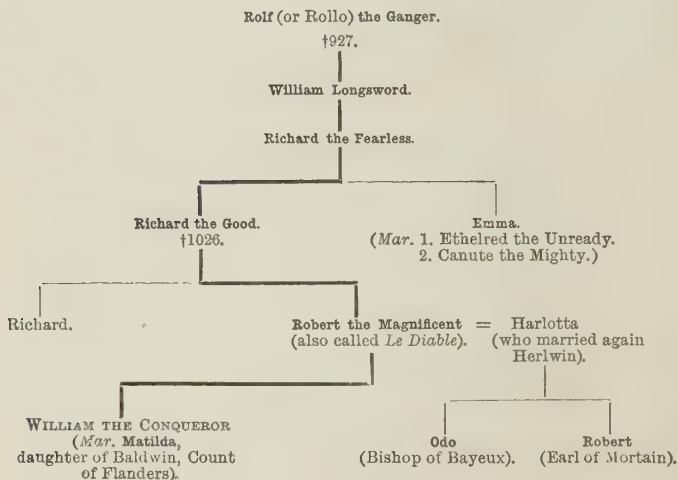
And o'er them many a sliding star
And many a merry wind was borne
And, streamed through many a golden bar,
The twilight melted into morn.

² From Grant Allen's "Anglo-Saxon Britain," p. 204.

BOOK II.

THE NORMAN KINGS

GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF THE HOUSE OF NORMANDY



CHAPTER I.

WILLIAM THE FIRST

Born 1027. Seized the throne (at the age of 39) in 1066.

Died 1087. Reigned 21 years.

WILLIAM, DUKE OF NORMANDY, and First of England, was the illegitimate son of Robert the Magnificent, Duke of Normandy and Maine. His mother was the daughter of a tanner of Falaise. When he was about seven years old, his father made up his mind to go on pilgrimage, and asked the Norman Barons to accept his son as heir to the duchy. The Barons did homage to the child. A year afterwards, Duke Robert died; and the boy's life was one long struggle. At the age of fifteen, he was strong enough to insist that the "Truce of God" should be observed in Normandy. He married, in 1053, Matilda, daughter of Baldwin, Count of Flanders, and a descendant of Alfred the Great.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

SCOTLAND: MALCOLM III. FRANCE: PHILIP I. POPE GREGORY VII. (Hildebrand).

1. William the Conqueror.—On his return from Normandy, the new King found much of the country in a state of revolt against the tyranny of his half-brother Odo and Fitzosbern; and he had now to enter upon a long campaign, and to fight a series of battles. Sweyn, king of the Danes, had been for two years making ready to attack England; Edgar the Atheling joined him; the men of Devon and the West rose in arms, and all along the Welsh border there were trouble and risings. When William was hunting in the Forest of Dean (in Gloucestershire), he received the news that three thousand Normans, who formed the garrison of York, had been slaughtered to a man; and he swore "by the splendour of God"¹ that he would exact vengeance sixtyfold for every one of them. He marched north

¹ *Per splendorem Dei*—the usual oath of William.

with his army, and harried the Vale of York which lies between the Humber and the Tyne, and is the most fertile part of the North of England, with fire and sword. Before opening his campaign, however, he had bought off by a heavy bribe the hostility of the Danish fleet. And so, his hands being free, he set to work and made a clean sweep of everything—lives, houses, cattle, harvest, and all implements of husbandry; and nothing but a desert remained behind the tread of the devastating Norman. That winter, more than a hundred thousand people died in the fields of cold and hunger. The ground lay waste for nine years; and half a century later, ruined towns and desolate fields recalled to men's minds the steps of the "stark" conqueror William. Many persons died of starvation; others "bowed their necks for bread"—that is, sold themselves as slaves. William now struck to the west and took Chester; and with the fall of Chester the best hopes of the English lay dead. It is true that Morcar joined **Hereward**, and that round Hereward a number of fugitives and outlaws gathered, and built a wooden fort, which they called "the Camp of Refuge," in the Isle of Ely; but the king drove a causeway of stones, trees, and hides, two miles long, into the fens, and completely rooted out this last resistance. Earl Edwin, who had headed the rebellion in the North, was killed in battle; Earl Morcar lay in prison; Earl Waltheof was taken into favour, but afterwards beheaded on a charge of treason; and the Atheling Edgar, after a visit to Scotland, settled quietly down as an ordinary noble, at the court of the Conqueror.

(i) William had, as a precaution, taken with him to Normandy the natural leaders of the English, **Edgar the Atheling**, **Edwin**, **Morcar**, **Waltheof**, and **Stigand**.

(ii) "The omission of the Northern Counties from the Domesday Survey throws a grim light on the completeness of the Conquest." "William I. is called *Conquestor*, because he *acquired* England, not because he subdued it."—**SPELMAN**.

(iii) It must not be forgotten that William regarded himself, not as a Conqueror, but as the duly elected **King of the English**. Even the word "Conqueror," meant really *Acquirer*. Mr. Freeman says: "To *conquer* means to *purchase*; and to *purchase* in law means to get property by any other means than by regular descent."

(iv) Kingsley's novel **Hereward the Wake** (=the Watchful) gives a brilliant account of the state of England at this period.

2. Feudalism.—By these campaigns the land of England fell into the hands of William; and most of this land he took away from its

English owners, and gave, in larger or in smaller portions, to his Norman followers. But this land was held by them only on a feudal tenure, that is, on condition that the holders would fight for the King, would be "his men," and yield him knight-service in war. On receiving a grant of land, the tenant, having stripped himself of his arms and armour, knelt down, joined his hands, placed them within the hands of his lord the King, and said, "I am your man for life and limb and earthly regard; and I will be faithful and loyal to you through life and in death, so God help me." Then the King kissed him, and this kiss was a sign that the land or "fief" became his and his heirs' for ever. Thus we may consider that England had been turned into one vast military camp; the chiefs of this army, who held their land *directly* from the King, and nearly sixty thousand knights and many more common soldiers, were at his call and order every day of their lives. But he retained the local courts of the shire and of the hundred, and maintained the old laws and organisation framed and upheld by the Godwins, in the time of Edward the Confessor.

3. The three Enemies of William.—William the Conqueror had, through the greater part of his life, to defend himself and to maintain his power against three sets of enemies. There were, first of all, the native English, who kept up their struggle till 1071; then, the greedy and dissatisfied Norman Barons, who would gladly have made themselves independent powers in the island; and, lastly, his own sons, who joined with his enemies in France to make war against him.

(i) "William was lawful King of the English, as far as outward ceremonies could make him so. But he knew well how far he was from having won real kingly authority over the whole kingdom. Hardly a third part of the land was in his obedience."—FREEMAN.

(ii) Robert Curthose had asked his father for the duchies of Normandy and Maine; but the Duke replied: "Don't think I shall take off my clothes before I go to bed." On this, Robert, with the help of Philip and some dissatisfied Norman barons, took up arms. At Gerberoi (1079), he wounded his father, not knowing who he was. When he heard his father's voice, he dismounted and begged his forgiveness. He afterwards came to England, and built Newcastle.

4. How William maintained his Power.—William thought out two excellent plans by which to retain all the power of the realm in his own hands, and to prevent any baron making himself independent of the Crown. The first was to make every landowner pay homage to

William himself, and to hold his land *directly* from him, and thus to be *his* vassal, and a tenant-in-chief. The second was not to allow any man to hold a large quantity of land together. If he gave any baron a great deal of land, he gave it him in many different counties, so that he should never be able to form one great concentrated power. Another purpose of his was to have all the law-courts in the country dependent on the Crown. Thus, with all the land in his own hands, and with all the administration of law in his own power,—with the lands to hold and the law to give, it is plain that the whole power of the country was gathered up and concentrated within himself. This, of course, was the very opposite of the old Saxon custom; but it was the feudal system carried to its logical extreme. The Englishman, in Saxon times, held his own land as his own right, chose his own aldermen, and the aldermen chose the king. Thus the Saxon custom grew and worked from below upwards; the new Norman custom worked from above downwards; and the King was all in all, while the landowner was only something as he held from the King. In the year 1086, William summoned all the Norman and English landholders to meet him at Salisbury; and there called upon them to do homage to himself. Thus if any one of these men came to fight against William, it was an act of high treason, and his life and lands were forfeited.

Meeting at
Salisbury
1086.

(i) In Normandy, the Normans only took an oath to their Duke, and not to the King of France. But, though William himself had sworn homage to the King of France for some of his lands, he could lead his Norman barons and knights against the French King, and these Normans were not guilty of treason, as they had sworn only to their own Duke.

(ii) William's half-brother, Robert of Mortain, held 793 manors; but he held them in twenty different counties.

(iii) To keep the administration of the law in his own hands, he governed the counties by his own sheriffs, whom he could appoint and whom he could dismiss. He also compelled the ultimate appeal in all cases to be made to the King's Court. He made only four great earldoms: Chester, Shrewsbury, Durham, and Kent. The first two were made to keep down the Welsh; Durham, to beat back the Scots; and Kent, against invaders from the Continent. The earls of these earldoms had royal rights and could appoint their own sheriffs; but William took care to give the earldoms of Durham and Kent to bishops, who could not marry and found families. The Earl of Kent was Odo, William's half-brother.

(iv) William seized also on the *folkland* (common-land of the English people), as well as on the estates of those who had fought against him or had been killed in battle.

The whole of Kent, nearly all Surrey and Sussex, and much land in the other shires, passed into the possession of Normans.

(v) William also built castles in the large towns, and at points where highroads crossed each other. The Tower of London, the castles at Hastings, Norwich, Canterbury, Rochester, Windsor, and other places, were all built by him. Robert Curthose, his eldest son, built the fortress on the Tyne called **Newcastle**.

(vi) In all these ways, and by these means, he made the Crown powerful; and this was the best way to make England a united kingdom. "On that day," says Mr. Freeman, "England became for ever a kingdom, one, and indivisible, which since that day no man has dreamed of parting asunder."

5. Lanfranc and the Church.—Another part of William's policy was to have the Church of England on his side. With this view, he deposed Stigand the Saxon Archbishop of Canterbury, and put his own personal friend **Lanfranc** in his place. He also appointed Norman bishops and abbots whenever vacancies occurred; and the Norman bishops were much better educated men than the English bishops. The Pope at this time was the great Hildebrand—Gregory VII.; and he and William were certainly the two greatest and most powerful men in Europe. But William would not allow Pope Gregory too much power over the Church in England. He ordered that no letters should be received by a bishop or abbot from the Pope without his consent, and that no one should be excommunicated by the Pope, without his permission having been previously asked and given. **Lanfranc** was full of zeal for his Church, and inspired others with the same zeal. Under his rule, many new monasteries were built, and new and beautiful churches rose in all parts of the kingdom.

(i) **Lanfranc** (1005-89) was an Italian, a native of Pavia. He was first a student of law; he then became a monk in the Abbey of Bec, and rose to be its prior. He opposed William's marriage with his cousin and was banished from Normandy. His friends the monks lent him a sorry hack to ride away on; and, as he was slowly departing he met the Duke and all his train. "If, Duke," he said, "I had had a comelier steed, I should have been out of your way hours ago!" The Duke laughed and begged him to return with him. It was he who advised William before invading England, to obtain the sanction and support of Christendom and the Pope; and William never forgot his obligation to him. He rebuilt Canterbury Cathedral, which had been destroyed by fire.

(ii) The finest Norman church in England is **Durham Cathedral**.

(iii) **Lanfranc** advised William to allow the Church to have separate Courts of its own, and not to send the clergy to plead at a Lay Court.

(iv) "The name of Englishman was turned into a reproach. None of that race for a hundred years were raised to any dignity in the State or in the Church. Their language and the characters in which it was written were rejected as barbarous; in all schools children were taught French, and the laws were administered in no other tongue. In twenty years from the accession of William almost the whole of the soil of England had been divided among foreigners."—THIERRY.

6. William's Peace.—Though William still had enemies abroad, during the last eleven years of his reign there was firm and settled peace through all his realm of England. It is true that he laid heavy taxes on the people; he revived the old tax of the **Danegeld**, and made it three times as heavy as it had ever been before his reign. But the country was so well ruled that a man might travel in safety from one end of it to the other "with his bosom full of gold"; and not only property but life and limb also were perfectly safe. He had also grown so strong abroad that he held not only Normandy, but Brittany and Maine; and he was not only King of England, but Overlord of Scotland and Wales.

(i) William's most tyrannical and unjust act was to lay waste about 90,000 acres of land in Hants to form the **New Forest**; and to make a law that any man who killed a deer should have his eyes put out. It is worth noticing that his second son Richard and his third son William were killed in this Forest, and a grandson as well.

(ii) "Stark he was," says the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, "to men who withstood him; so harsh and cruel he was that none withstood his will. Earls that did aught against his bidding he cast into bonds. Bishops he stripped of their bishoprics; abbots of their abbacies. He spared not his own brother (Odo); first he was in the land, but the king cast him into bondage."

(iii) "He was lord of the land as no king had been before him; and he enjoyed not only all the income of his predecessors, but in addition all the dues which came to him as feudal sovereign. He was thus perhaps the strongest and most absolute monarch that has ever sat upon the English throne."

7. Domesday Book, 1086.—Every piece of land, to whomsoever belonging, had to pay to the Crown certain dues or "customs." In order that not even the smallest piece of land should escape, William, at a meeting of the Witan held at Gloucester in 1085, issued a royal commission to inquire into the size and value of every holding, however small; and the two volumes in which this valuation is given are called the *Domesday*¹ *Book*. This royal commission enrolled in every district a jury, which consisted of the sheriff (or reeve of the shire), the lord of the manor,

**Domesday
Book
1086.**

¹ *Dome* or *doom* means *judgment* or *valuation*. It is the noun from *deem*. A *judge* was called in Old English a *dempster*, a title still used in the Isle of Man.

the parish priest, the reeve of the hundred, and six villeins¹ out of every hamlet, who had to declare on oath the size and value of each piece of land, the service due by its owners, and the number of its inhabitants. Thus was written this famous book, which for several centuries served both as a register of lands for taxation, and as a muster-roll for the army of the country.²

(i) Commissioners called before them the reeve, the parish-priest, and six villeins from each township, who stated the amount of arable, pasture, and wood-land in the township, to whom each part belonged, what its value was, how many landholders, cottars, and slaves there were, what mills there were, what fisheries, etc. etc. "So narrowly did he make them seek out all this, that there was not a single hyde or yard of land, nor one ox, nor one cow, nor one swine, left out, that was not set down in his rolls."

(ii) The grades of landed proprietors in the time of William I. were as follows :—

(i) About 600 persons and corporations holding land immediately from the King (*tenants in capite*).

(ii) About 7870 sub-tenants or under-vassals, who held of their superior lords on condition of military service.

(iii) The rest were freemen, burghers, villeins, cottagers, labourers, etc.

8. Death of William.—In 1087 William was living in Normandy. A joke of France about the figure of the King, who had grown enormously stout, excited him to fury, and he prepared to make war upon his foe. He at once laid waste the border-land between the French kingdom and Normandy, and burned the town of Mantes to the ground. As he was riding through the town, his horse, stepping on some hot cinders, began to plunge violently, and threw William with great force against the high pommel of his saddle. He sustained a severe internal injury, was carried to Rouen, and lingered there in pain for many weeks. His heart was softened a little before he died ; he released Earl Morcar and even his half-brother Bishop Odo. To his eldest son, Robert Curthose, he left his birthright, Normandy ; to William, his most dutiful son, he gave his splendid conquest of England, and, presenting him with his ring, advised him to hasten across the Channel ; to Henry, 5000 lbs. of silver, which the young prince took care to see carefully weighed before deserting his father in his last illness and his utmost need. And then the great duke and all-powerful king died without a friend or kinsman near his bed,

¹ The Norman name for *serfs* or slaves.

² The second Domesday Book, called for by Lord Hampton, was published in 1876.

on the 9th of September 1087. He was buried at Caen—a small cathedral city in Normandy.

As William's corpse was about to be lowered into its grave at Caen, a man named Asselin Fitz-Arthur stepped forth and forbade the burial. "This land belonged to my father; and it was taken by force from him by this duke. In God's name, I forbid this burial!" These statements were proved to be true; and a promise was made that the full price should be paid. The funeral then went on.

9. William's Character and Government.—A writer in the Saxon Chronicle says that he was wise and rich, mild to good men, but terrible and "stark to men that withstood his will; all men were obliged to be obedient, and to follow his will, if they would have lands or even life." But this unbending sternness made him all the better king, and his rule all the better for the country. He was cruel in some respects, but his government gave peace to the people. Even Englishmen, who detested the yoke of foreigners, talked of "the good peace he made in the land, so that a man might walk from end to end with his bosom full of gold." But he permitted nothing to interrupt his personal pleasures. He was madly fond of hunting; and he destroyed churches and hamlets, cottages and homesteads, and cleared the country-side bare of families and human beings, to make the New Forest.¹ He, who was so far in front of his time as to abolish capital punishment and the slave-trade in England, ordained that a man who slew a deer should have his eyes put out. As he grew older, he grew avaricious; and it is even said that, with all his strong sense of justice, he shut his eyes to oppression by his officers if he gained money by it. He heaped together large sums of money at the old capital of England, and these sums were called the **Hoard of Winchester**. He encouraged commerce and industry by permitting the Flemings and Jews, who followed him from over-sea, to settle in the large towns under his immediate protection; and in this purely accidental way he laid the foundation of the future commercial greatness of this commercial country.

The English Feudal System had five legal qualities:

- (i) The **Hereditability** of the grant of land, provided the heir was a man capable of fighting, or provided the heiress married such a man.

¹ The word *forest* does not necessarily mean *wood*, but only waste and wild ground. It comes from the Latin word *foris* (=out-of-doors); and a *foresta* meant a piece of land taken out-of the jurisdiction of common law and put under the immediate charge of the King himself. (Large masses of trees would be quite out of place in a deer-forest.)

- (ii) The **Relief**, or handing over a certain quantity of weapons and armour when the land was handed to another person. This was finally commuted into 100 shillings as knight's fee.
- (iii) The **Feudal Wardship**, which enabled the King to take back the estate if the heir was a minor, and to enjoy the profits of the estate until the heir was twenty-one. The King might further give the heir or heiress in marriage to whomsoever he chose.
- (iv) **Aids**. These were paid by the holder of land (a) for his Superior, when he had been taken prisoner—to ransom him; (b) to his Superior, when his eldest daughter was married; (c) and when his eldest son was made a knight.
- (v) The **Escheat** or **Forfeiture of the Fief**. The land was forfeited to the King (a) if the holder died without heirs, or (b) had committed "felony."—GNEIST.

10. Great Men.—The most prominent personages in the reign of William were **Odo of Bayeux**, **William Fitz-Osbern**, and **Lanfranc** on the Norman side; **Edgar the Atheling**, **Earl Edwin**, **Earl Morcar**, **Earl Waltheof**, and **Stigand** on the English side. Of these, Lanfranc was by far the ablest man, and did more for the Church and State of England than any other administrator.

11. Social Facts.—From the beginning of William's reign there stood opposite to each other in England two peoples—the Normans and the English. The Normans were soldiers, accustomed to fight and to rule, but not to till the ground, and they spoke Norman-French; the English were, most of them, farmers and labourers, and they spoke English. The problem for future times was on what terms these two peoples were to live together, and how they were to amalgamate.—William's rule was felt everywhere. It was felt even in so small a regulation as the curfew-bell. But England received from the Norman not only new laws and almost a new constitution; it received also new arts, new modes of expression, and higher aims in literature. To the Norman, England owed also the Norman-French element in the English Language—an element full of colour, vivacity, spirit, and life. "To Normandy," says a historian, "we owe the builder, the knight, the schoolman, and the statesman."

(i) "England presented the singular spectacle of a native population with a foreign sovereign, a foreign hierarchy, and a foreign nobility. The King was a Norman; the bishops and principal abbots were Normans; and, after the death of Waltheof, every earl and every powerful vassal of the Crown was a Norman."

(ii) "The Normans," says Creasy, "had acquired the language, the arts, and the civilisation of the Romanized Gauls and the Romanized Franks." "The polite luxury of the Norman," says Macaulay, "presented a striking contrast to the

coarse voracity and drunkenness of Saxon and Danish neighbours. He loved to display his magnificence not in piles of food and hogsheads of strong drink, but in large and stately edifices, rich armour, gallant horses, choice falcons, well-ordered tournaments, and banquets delicate rather than abundant."

(iii) The Curfew-bell was a mere police order to diminish the chances of fires. Most of the houses of the time were built of wood and covered with thatch—which became very dry; and this police law lasted in England till the sixteenth century. Even now the curfew-bell is rung at eight o'clock in many parishes.

(iv) The Cinque Ports were five harbours, strongly fortified by the Conqueror, to protect the island against invasion. They were **Dover, Hastings, Romney, Hythe, and Sandwich**. To these **Winchelsea** and **Rye** were afterwards added. Winchelsea is now inland; the sea has receded for several miles.

(v) The **Channel Islands** became practically annexed to England by the Norman Conquest.

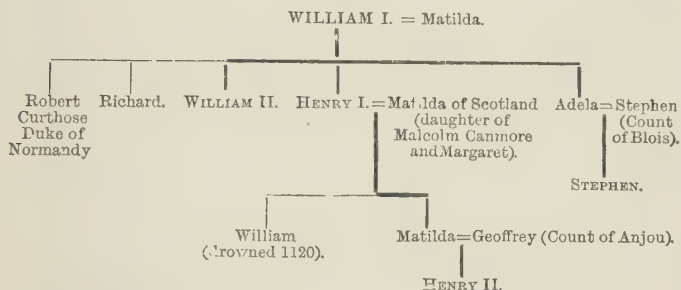
*SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF WILLIAM I.'s REIGN.

1066. December 25. William is crowned in Westminster Abbey.	1072. William invades Scotland, and exacts homage from Malcolm.
1067. William visits Normandy, leaving Odo and William Fitzosbern in charge of England.	1073. William conquers Maine with an English army.
1068. William takes Exeter and puts down the rising in the West. This completes the subjugation of Wessex.	1079. Robert, William's son, rebels, and nearly kills his father at Gerberoi. Robert submits.
1069. William takes York, and puts down the rising in the North.	1084. William renews the tax of Danegeld (abolished by Edward the Confessor); and raises it to 6s. per hide of land instead of 2s.
1070. Stigand is deposed, and Lanfranc made Archbishop of Canterbury.	1085. Survey of England ordered at the Council of Gloucester.
1071. Rising of Earls Edwin and Morcar. Edwin killed. Morcar joins Hereward. This is the last English struggle for independence.	1086. Survey completed and registered in the Domesday Book.
	1087. William makes war on Philip King of France. Dies of internal wound received at Mantes.

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.

1070. Malcolm Canmore (= Bighead) marries Margaret, sister of Edgar Atheling.	1076. The Turks take Palestine.
1073. Hildebrand becomes Pope under the title of Gregory VII. (to 1085).	1087. Moorish Empire in Spain.

GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF NORMAN KINGS OF ENGLAND.



(i) Stephen was the nephew of Henry I. and grandson of the Conqueror in the female line.

(ii) Stephen was the second cousin of Henry II.

(iii) **Henry II.**, being the son of the Count of Anjou, was the first of the **Angevin Line**.

(iv) **Margaret** was the daughter of the Saxon Prince "Edward the Outlaw"; and thus in Henry II. were united the two lines--the Anglo-Saxon and the Anglo-Norman.



CHAPTER II.

WILLIAM THE SECOND

Born 1057. Succeeded (at the age of 30) in 1087. Died 1100.

Reigned 13 years.

WILLIAM RUFUS was the third, but second surviving, son of William the Conqueror. His eldest son was Robert Curthose, so called from his short legs; his second son, Richard, was killed in the New Forest. William Rufus was never married. He was called *Rufus*, or Red, from his fiery complexion and blood-shot eyes.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

SCOTLAND: MALCOLM III. FRANCE: PHILIP II. (the Overlord of Robert).

ROBERT, Duke of Normandy.

1. **William II., 1087-1100.**—William Rufus was, of all the Conqueror's sons, most like his father in appearance and in character. His father, before his death, had written a letter to Lanfranc, begging him to use his influence with the English Witan to have Rufus elected king; and, accordingly, Lanfranc's advice prevailed, and he was elected King of England and crowned on the 26th of September 1087. The Norman Barons, headed by Odo, saw that if the easy-going Robert were to succeed to the Crown, they would have a much better chance of feudal independence, and they therefore took up arms against William. But William had a firm friend in Lanfranc; the English were on his side, for he promised them good government, the repeal of the forest laws, and the reduction of taxes; they were against the Norman nobles, from whom they had suffered much and many things; and Wulfstan, the Bishop of Worcester, and at this time the only English bishop in the country, ranged himself on William's side. Odo and his friends were driven into the castle of Rochester. This they were at last obliged to surrender; and so terribly had the Englishmen of Kent

Rebellion
of Norman
Barons,
1088.

suffered from the tyranny of Odo when he was earl of that county, that they crowded round him as he marched out, with loud shouts of "Gallows and the cord for the traitor bishop! A halter for the bishop!" "At the sound of these imprecations," says Thierry, "the priest who had blessed the Norman army at the Battle of Hastings left England never to return." This defeat of Odo and the Norman Barons checked their power, prevented their strengthening themselves by building high castles, and thus indirectly encouraged the growth of towns and the prosperity of agriculture by making peace in the land. So long as Lanfranc lived, William followed the policy of his father, and used the powers of the native English against the ambition of the barons. Against Wales, he built a line of fortresses on the Cheshire border and in the Severn valley. These were placed in the care of the Lords of the Marches (or "Lords Marchers").

(i) Robert Curthose had Normandy; William Rufus, England. This arrangement was in harmony with the ideas of the time, by which hereditary possessions went to the eldest son, and acquired property to the younger. But, even at this time William the Conqueror could not "leave" England to his second son by will.

(ii) The rebellion of Odo and the Norman Barons against Rufus is remarkable for two things:—

- (a) William relied on the *English people*; proclaimed all Englishmen **nothings** (=good-for-nothings) who would not follow him; and called out the **English Fyrd** (a national militia) to help him against his own countrymen.

The proclamation ran thus:—"Let him that is worth anything, either in the towns, or out of the towns, leave his house and come!"

- (b) Twenty-two years after the landing of the Normans in Pevensey Bay in 1066, the remarkable sight was seen of an *English* army under a Norman King beating back a Norman army under a Norman Duke at the same place; for Duke Robert had sent over a fleet from Normandy to help Odo.

"This was the beginning of that alliance between the Monarchy and the People which, fostered by Henry I. and Henry II., and confirmed by the great Edward, secured victory for the Crown in its struggle with the feudal aristocracy."

2. Ralph Flambard.—The good and able Archbishop Lanfranc died in 1089; and William took as his chief adviser a Norman priest called Ralph or Ranulph, and nicknamed Flambard, or the *Firebrand*. This man was his chaplain, but he really acted as Lord Chief Justice or Justiciar, and travelled about the country trying cases and extorting bribes. William was both lavish and grasping, extravagant and avaricious. His chief means of raising money was to keep the bishops' sees and the abbacies vacant when the bishop or abbot died,

and to put the revenues into his own pocket. So far did he carry this practice, that, at the close of his reign, one archbishopric, four bishoprics, and eleven abbeys were without heads. He travelled about the country with a court composed of worthless and cruel men, who behaved with an insolence and tyranny from which the people fled on all sides. They lived everywhere at free quarters; they trampled under foot the bread they did not eat; they washed their horses' feet in good home-brewed ale; and now and then, out of mere drunken frolic, they burnt down the house which had given them shelter for the night. Flambard, who was made Bishop of Durham, laid on the poor hard-working people ever heavier and heavier taxes; but he was ready, said the English, to loose the halter from the robber's neck if the thief could pay for his life.

(i) The Justiciar was the highest officer in the kingdom, took the king's place, ruled in the king's stead when he was abroad; and writs were issued in his name.

(ii) Flambard took care to give to all his extortions and exactions the form of law. His chief method was this:—he induced the king to look upon the lands and property of bishops and abbots as lands held by a *feudal tenure*—held in the same way as those owned by his barons. Thus bishops and abbots had, on their accession, to pay the same dues as other tenants-in-chief; and the king came to consider bishoprics and abbacies as ordinary fiefs which he might give away or keep at his own pleasure. "In his days," says the Chronicle, "all justice sank and all unrighteousness arose."

(iii) Flambard also made heirs pay very large fines ("reliefs") when they came into their properties; if an heir was a minor, the king acted as his guardian, but put the proceeds of the estate during the years of minority into his own pocket; and Rufus took care to marry wealthy heiresses to his own friends.

(iv) When Anselm was appointed Archbishop of Canterbury, he was expected to pay a handsome fine to the king.

3. Events of the Reign.—William attacked, in 1090, his brother Robert in his dukedom of Normandy; he repelled an invasion of the Scots, and forced King Malcolm to become his *man*; he built a castle at Carlisle, and colonised the town with peasants from the south of England. The archbishopric of Canterbury had been kept vacant for four years, when William, in the course of a severe illness, was frightened into appointing Anselm, the Abbot of Bec, a pupil and a friend of the great Lanfranc. William, in making this appointment, promised to restore the Church property; but when he got well again, he forgot or refused, and this, coupled with his great harshness and injustice, at last drove Anselm

Anselm
Archbishop
of Canter-
bury

1093.

into exile. He remained at Rome till after the death of the King. In 1096 the first expedition to wrest the sepulchre of Christ from the hands of the Mahometans set out and Robert of Normandy joined this crusade. To meet his expenses, he sold (or mortgaged) his dominions—Normandy and Maine—to his brother William for five years; and the price paid was £6666 or 10,000 marks of silver.

(i) **Malcolm Canmore**, King of Scots, was the brother-in-law of Edgar Atheling and naturally opposed William Rufus. He had also claims of his own to Cumberland and Westmoreland. But, when William returned from Normandy, he attacked Malcolm, took Cumberland (which had till then been part of Strathclyde) in 1092, and built a strong castle at **Carlisle** on the Eden. This castle was the western counterpart to Newcastle on the eastern side of the island.

(ii) **Anselm of Aosta** (in Piedmont) had been Abbot of Bec. He was very unwilling to accept so difficult an office. "The plough of the church," he said, "has been drawn by two strong oxen (William I. and Lanfranc); how can a poor weak sheep like me do any good, yoked to a wild bull (William II.)?" But the bishops around him forced the crozier into his hands, and hurried him off to the Cathedral to instal him.

(iii) "Anselm," says Macaulay, "was the first protector whom the English found among the dominant caste." He was unable to approve either of the private conduct of the King, or of the way in which he persisted in robbing the Church.

(iv) The **First Crusade** began in 1095. The great "Easter Fair" at Jerusalem was one of the great markets of the world, where Western met Eastern merchants and exchanged their goods. But, in 1076, a band of Seljukian Turks took Jerusalem, oppressed the merchants and abused the pilgrims. The appeal of the Pope and of Peter the Hermit stirred all Europe from Sicily to Norway. Pope Urban II. preached in favour of the Crusade; and it was led by Peter the Hermit and Walter the Penniless. It was really an undisciplined rabble, which started from France, marched across Hungary and Bulgaria, and committed all kinds of crime—robbery, murder, etc. About 250,000 perished on the road or by the hands of the Turks. But they were followed by the chivalry of Europe divided into six armies, led by distinguished men, the most famous of whom were **Godfrey of Bouillon**, **Stephen of Blois**, and **Robert of Normandy**. The kings of France and England encouraged this military movement as it rid them of some of their most quarrelsome and turbulent subjects. After taking Jerusalem, they spent three days in slaughtering 70,000 Moslems; they then ascended the Hill of Calvary, bareheaded and barefooted, with songs of praise and thanksgiving. The crown of the kingdom of Jerusalem was offered to Robert, who declined it; and it was accepted by Godfrey of Bouillon. (Jerusalem was taken on Good Friday of 1099.)

4. William's Death.—William was as fond of hunting as his father was; extended the forest-lands and made the forest-laws harder and stricter than ever; and, in this and other ways, earned for himself widespread hatred among the English. Rumours of some dreadful evil about to happen to him were current in the land; and on the 2d of August 1100, when he thought of riding out to hunt, his friends

tried earnestly to dissuade him. The night before, their dreams had been filled with signs and disasters. Their fears and their talk had made some impression on him, and had shaken his intentions a little ; but after he had dined and drunk rather freely, he broke into a rage : “Do you take me for an Englishman,¹ that I should trouble my head about old wives’ fancies?” and calling for his horse, he leapt into the saddle. His brother Henry, his favourite Walter Tyrrel, William de Breteuil, and others formed part of his suite, as they cantered rapidly and silently through the glades of the New Forest. The party soon scattered in pursuit of sport. Suddenly a cry was heard, the word passed from mouth to mouth that the King was killed ; and, on galloping up, they found him stretched upon the ground with an arrow through his breast. Whether it was the arrow of a hunter or of an assassin, no one ever knew. For years there had been heavy taxes grinding and weighing down the poor ; and there had also been famine in the country. Suspicion fell on Walter Tyrrel, who fled to France ; but he always denied the deed. Prince Henry, after a glance at the body of his brother, galloped off as hard as he could to Winchester, and demanded the keys of the Royal Hoard. William de Breteuil had followed him, and there claimed the Crown for Robert ; but Henry, drawing his sword, swore that no foreign-born prince should rule in England ; that he himself had been born in the country, and was therefore the rightful heir. The body of William—“like a wild boar pierced by the hunters”—was thrown into the cart of a poor charcoal-burner, who brought it alone and unattended to Winchester. No man asked how he died ; no inquiry was made ; no bell was tolled ; no prayer was raised ; but the bleeding body was lowered into its grave in the Cathedral of Winchester, and a plain uncarved slab—which may still be seen—was placed over the body of the English King. He was forty-three at the time of his death.

5. The Character of William.—He was a short, thick-set man, with bull neck, yellow hair, and a face of so fiery a hue as to gain for him the nickname of the Red King. He had none of the qualities that go to make a good ruler, except prompt courage and strong will. Once, when hunting in the New Forest, he heard that Elias, Count of

¹ This was the common Norman form of deprecation in the twelfth century—the strongest form of expressing contempt.

Maine, had surprised and seized the city of Mans. He immediately turned his horse about, rode down to the shore, jumped into the first fishing-boat he saw, and put to sea in a heavy gale. His courtiers wished him to wait for a better boat and fairer weather ; but his only reply was : " Did you ever hear of a king being drowned ? "

6. Great Men.—The most distinguished characters of this reign are **Odo of Bayeux** and **Lanfranc** ; and, in the after part of it, **Flambard** and **Anselm**. The policy of **Odo** was to favour Duke Robert and to place him on the throne of England ; because, under his loose and careless rule, Odo and the Norman barons could have made themselves into independent powers, ruling and doing as they pleased within their own baronies and earldoms, just as the French barons had been accustomed to do.—The policy of **Lanfranc** was to strengthen the power of the Church, and to limit the power of the Pope within the realm of England.—The policy of **Flambard** was to put as much power in the hands, and as much money in the pockets, of William as he possibly could ; and this without appealing directly to military force, but always within the limits, and supported by the forms, of law.—The policy of **Anselm** was to make the Church independent of the Crown, and, for this purpose, to increase the power of the Pope in and over the Church of England.

"The feudal customs of *aids*, *reliefs*, etc., were developed by Flambard into a great system of extortion. The townsfolk and the cultivators of the soil were weighed down by heavy taxes."—**PROTHERO**.

7. Social Facts.—The Crusades had a good and beneficial side for the English towns. Several guilds and towns purchased charters from barons who wanted money to go to Jerusalem with ; and these barons gave up their powers and privileges to the towns in exchange for gold.—William II. encouraged building and architecture. He built a wall round the Tower of London ; he raised a strong stone bridge—**London Bridge**—over the Thames ; and he built the splendid hall which, even at the present day, forms the magnificent entrance to the two Houses of Parliament, and which is called **Westminster Hall**.—In the last year of this reign, the sea overflowed the estates of Earl Godwin, in the east of Kent, drowned thousands of men and myriads of cattle, and formed the bank now known to sailors as the **Goodwin Sands**.

(i) As these charters carried with them the right of trading, levying of local dues, and such-like burghal privileges, they did much to develop a wealthy merchant class. The Crusades, too, being indirectly the means of exchanging, on a new and wider scale, the commodities of the East and West, gave rise to the commercial republics of Italy (Genoa, Venice, etc.), the far-famed trading marts of mediæval times.

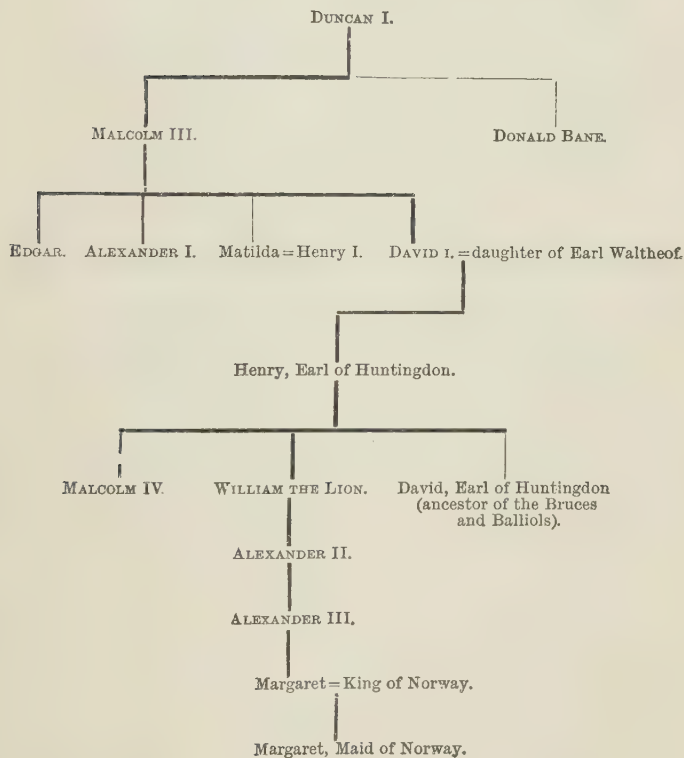
(ii) **London Bridge** (of wood) had been carried away by the floods of February 1098.

8. Scotland to 1097.—The King of Scotland from 1058 to 1093 was **Malcolm III.**, son of Duncan I. He was commonly called **Canmore** (or Bighead). The revolution in England produced by the Battle of Hastings in 1066 had this effect upon Scotland, that it drove out Edgar the Atheling and his sister Margaret, who took refuge with Malcolm III., at his Court in Dunfermline. Malcolm married Edgar's sister, who, for her goodness and kindness to the poor, was long after known in Scotland as St. Margaret. In the year 1072, William the Conqueror invaded Scotland and compelled Malcolm to "become his man." Nineteen years after, in 1091, Malcolm quarrelled with William Rufus, and again invaded England. In a last invasion (1093) he was slain at Alnwick Castle. When the good Queen Margaret heard of his fall, "she was in mind," says the Saxon Chronicle, "afflicted unto death, and with her priests went to church, and received her rites, and obtained by prayer to God, that she might give up her spirit."—**Donald Bane**, the brother of Malcolm, seized on the throne and held it till 1097. Edgar the Atheling now repaid the kindness of his brother-in-law. He raised an English army, marched to the assistance of his nephew and namesake **Edgar**, the son of Malcolm, and aided him in making his way to the Scottish throne.

(i) Malcolm III. was extremely kind to Edgar the Atheling, gave him twice a princely outfit—including "golden and silver vessels," and at last persuaded him to give up his claims on the Crown of England and submit to King William.

(ii) Queen Margaret "found that the people of Scotland did not respect the Lord's Day, but followed their usual occupations upon it as on the ordinary week-days. On her remonstrance this was rectified, so that the first day of the week was sanctified from labour." She also founded a monastery at Dunfermline, and "rebuilt the church at Iona, which had been desolated by the Norsemen."—HILL BURTON.

GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF
THE SCOTTISH KINGS FROM 1033 TO 1286.



SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF WILLIAM II.'s REIGN.

- | | |
|---|--|
| <p>1087. William II. is elected King by the Witan.</p> <p>1088. Rebellion of the Norman Barons, headed by Odo, Bishop of Bayeux and Earl of Kent. Suppressed by the aid of the English Fyrd.</p> <p>1089. Death of Lanfranc. See of Canterbury kept vacant for four years.</p> <p>1091. Treaty between William and Robert. Whichever survives the other, to have <i>both</i> Normandy and England, and, whichever dies childless, the other to be his heir.</p> | <p>1093. Anselm becomes Archbishop of Canterbury.</p> <p>1094. Ralph Flambard is made Justiciar. He employs the forms of law to extort money from all classes.</p> <p>1096. Robert pledges his duchy for five years to William for £6666, to go on the First Crusade.</p> <p>1097. Anselm retires to Rome.</p> <p>1100. William is killed in the New Forest.</p> |
|---|--|

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS OF WILLIAM II.'s REIGN.

- | | |
|--|--|
| <p>1089. Robert of Normandy quarrels with his younger brother Henry (afterwards Henry I.), and puts him in prison.</p> <p>1093. Malcolm III. (Canmore), King of Scotland, is killed. Donald Bane succeeds him.</p> <p>1096. Duke Robert of Normandy goes on the First Crusade.</p> | <p>1097. Donald Bane, King of Scotland, deposed. Edgar, son of Malcolm III. and Margaret, sister of Edgar Atheling, is placed on the throne by his uncle.</p> <p>1099. Jerusalem taken by the Crusaders and the Christian kingdom of Jerusalem founded. Godfrey of Bouillon is the first king.</p> |
|--|--|

PLAN OF DATES
ELEVENTH CENTURY

1000	1001	1002 Danegelt (24,000 lbs. of silver). Massacre of the Danes on St. Brice's Day.	1003 Sweyn invades England.	1004
------	------	--	--------------------------------	------

1010			Godwin	
1011 Danegelt once more (48,000 lbs.)	1012	1013 Ethelred flees to Normandy.	1021	
1014 Death of Sweyn. Ethelred recalled by the Saxons. Canute chosen by the Danish army.	1015 Canute conquers Wessex.	1016 Death of Ethelred. EDMUND IRONSIDE and CANUTE. Death of Edmund.	1024	
1017 CANUTE sole King of England and Denmark. Canute marries Emma, widow of Ethelred.	1018	1019	1027 Canute goes to Rome.	Canute

1040 Harold Harefoot dies. HARDICANUTE.			Norman	
1041	1042 Hardicanute dies. EDWARD THE CONFESSOR.	1043	1051 Revolt of Earl Godwin.	Earl Godwin Stigand
1044	1045 "Early Norman" style of Architecture.	1046	1054 Macbeth defeated by Earl Siward of Northumbria.	Earl Siward by Thorkel Harald
1047	1048	1049	1057	

1070 Stigand deposed. Lanfranc made Archbishop of Canterbury.				
1071 Last English struggle for Independence. Morcar joins Hereward.	1072 Malcolm Canmore does homage to William.	1073 William conquers Maine with an English army.	1081	Bishop
1074 Revolt of Norman Barons.	1075	1076	1084 Danegelt renewed, at 6s. per hide.	Generals
1077	1078 Rebellion of Robert, eldest son of William.	1079 Submission of Robert. Formation of New Forest.	1087 Death of William. WILLIAM II.	William I. Rebellion which the 1

TH CENTURY

1005	1006	1007 Danes bought off with 36,000 lbs. of silver.	1008	1009
------	------	---	------	------

<p>1030 Canute goes on pilgrimage to Rome.</p>				
1023	1031 Canute forces Malcolm, king of Scots, to do homage for Lothian.	1032	1033	
1026	1034	1035 Canute dies. HAROLD I. (HARE- FOOT) and HARDICANUTE.	1036 Alfred, son of Ethelred, murdered.	
1029 The King's Delf constructed between Peterborough and Ramsey.	1037 HAROLD I., king of All England.	1038	1039	

<p>1060</p>				
1053 Death of Earl Godwin. Harold Earl of Wessex.	1061	1062	1063 Wales made tributary by Harold.	
1056	1064	1065 Tostig superseded by Earl Morcar.	1066 HAROLD II. (i) Battle of Stamford Bridge. (ii) Battle of Hastings. WILLIAM I.	
1059	1067 William I. visits Nor- mandy. Bishop Odo and Fitz Osbern in charge of England. Ed- gar the Atheling flees to Scotland.	1068 People of Northumber- land rebel. They send for Edgar.	1069 Rising of the North. The Danes and Edgar assist.	

<p>1090 William invades Normandy.</p>				
1083	1091 Malcolm Canmore, with Edgar the Atheling, in- vades England.	1092	1093 Anselm Archbishop of Canterbury.	
1086 Domesday Book. All the landholders of England swear allegi- ance to William at Salisbury.	1094 Ralph Flambard Justiciar.	1095	1096	
1089 Death of Lanfranc. See of Canterbury vacant for four years. Ralph Flambard, the King's adviser.	1097 Anselm flees to Rome.	1098	1099 Capture of Jerusalem by Godfrey of Bouillon.	

CHAPTER III.

HENRY THE FIRST

Born 1068. Succeeded (at the age of 32) in 1100. Died 1135.

Reigned 35 years.

HENRY I. (nicknamed Beaclerc, or Good Scholar, from his knowledge of Greek and Latin) was the fourth and youngest son of William the Conqueror. He was English born, his birthplace being Selby in Yorkshire. He was twice married. His first wife was Edith of Scotland, the daughter of Malcolm, King of Scots, and Margaret, sister of Edgar Atheling. Edith took the Norman name of Matilda (or Maud) on her marriage, and was long known as "the good queen Maud." Matilda had two children—William (who was drowned in 1120), and Matilda (afterwards "Lady of England"). His second wife was Adelais the Fair, of Louvain, daughter of the Duke of Brabant. She had no children.

It was his translation of Æsop's Fables into French that won for Henry the name of *Beauleorc*.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

SCOTLAND :	{	EDGAR.		
		ALEXANDER I.	FRANCE : PHILIP I.	POPE PASCAL II.
		DAVID I.		

1. **The Charter of Liberties.**—Immediately on the death of his brother, Henry rode off to Winchester and seized the Royal Hoard in that city. Three days after, Henry was crowned at Westminster, in the absence of Anselm, by Maurice, Bishop of London, while his brother Robert was loitering on his way home from his crusade in the East. Henry knew well that the success of his usurpation would depend on the support he could obtain from the English ; and he at once issued to the people what was called a *Charter of Liberties*. In this charter he chiefly promised three things : to the Church, that he would neither retain, sell, nor farm out vacant benefices ; to his vassals and their sub-vassals, or *vavasours*, freedom from sundry taxes and

exactions ; and to the English people, the restoration of the laws of the good King Edward. He also threw Flambard into the Tower, and recalled Anselm to his See. The whole of Henry's reign is chiefly a narrative of the struggles between him and his barons.

(i) Robert had by far the best claim to the Crown. First, by birth ; and, secondly, by the express terms of the treaty made with Rufus. But Henry, who was entirely selfish, got "the Witan, that was near at hand, to choose him for their king."

(ii) The four first acts of his reign made Henry very popular. These were : (a) the issue of the *Charter of Liberties* ; (b) his marriage with *Edith of Scotland* ; (c) his imprisonment of *Flambard* ; and (d) his recall of *Anselm*.

(iii) The chief points of this new charter were these : (a) that the King should not put in his pocket the revenues of vacant bishoprics and abbacies ; (b) that only just and lawful reliefs should be paid by the nobles, and that heiresses and widows should not be married against their will ; (c) that the *Danegelt* should be abolished ; and (d) that the tenants-in-chief should deal with their tenants as the King dealt with them. A copy of this charter was sent to one abbey in each shire.

(iv) Henry's marriage with *Edith of Scotland* united the two lines—the Saxon and the Norman ; and the children of the marriage were descendants of Alfred as well as of William the Conqueror. Any member of the Royal Family of England can now trace his descent up to *Cerdic*, the first King of Wessex.

(v) *Flambard* escaped from the Tower by a coil of rope sent to him in a jar of wine. With the wine he intoxicated his jailers, and by the rope he scaled down the walls. It was said of him in England that he not merely "fleece'd, but flay'd the flock."

(vi) *Anselm* was asked "to come back, like a father, to his son Henry, and the English people."

2. Henry's Marriage.—The Norman Barons soon began to plot against Henry's government, which was too strict for them ; and to aim at placing on the throne Robert, under whom they hoped to go on pretty much as they liked. But this only threw the King more and more on the side of the English. Henry had married a princess of English descent—*Edith*, the daughter of *Malcolm*, king of Scots, and of *Margaret*, the sister of *Edgar the Atheling*. On her marriage she took the Norman name of *Matilda* or *Maud*, and was long known as "*Maud the Good*." This marriage delighted the English, for thus the Saxon line of *Cerdic* and *Alfred* was united with the Scandinavian line of *Rolf* and *William the Conqueror*. And with this beginning the fusion of the English and the Norman also began : a fusion that went on so rapidly, that the distinctive name of *Norman* had died out about the middle of the twelfth century, and the descendants of the heroes of *Hastings* at length became proud of the name of *Englishman*.

Saxon and
Norman
Lines united
1100.

Henry also raised an army of Englishmen to resist any Norman invasion that might be made; and, as the Norman nobles refused to teach them, he trained them himself in all warlike and knightly exercises. Duke Robert invaded England, assisted by the barons; but the English were faithful to the King, and Anselm, stepping in, managed to heal the quarrel without bloodshed. Not long **Tenchebrai** after, Henry invaded Normandy, and on the field of **1106**. **Tenchebrai** utterly broke then and for ever the power of Robert and his barons. Robert was brought to England, thrown into prison at Cardiff, and confined there till his death in 1135.

(i) The leader of the barons was **Robert de Bellême**, Earl of Shrewsbury, "in cruelty pre-eminent among the savages of the age." He was the most powerful baron in England, had thirty-four castles in Normandy, and a number along the Welsh Marches. Henry raised an English army against him, took his castles, and drove him into exile. The English were delighted, praised King Henry, and made poems about his victory. "You are a true king now," they cried; "your reign begins in good earnest from the day you beat down Robert of Bellême."

(ii) It is worthy of notice that the **Battle of Tenchebrai** was fought on the 14th of October—the anniversary of the **Battle of Senlac**.

(iii) **William Fitz Robert** or **Clito**, the son of Duke Robert, ought to have succeeded his father as Duke of Normandy. But Henry was determined to keep both dominions in his own hand, and attacked William Clito and the King of France at **Brenville**, near Rouen, in 1112, and gained a complete victory. Clito died soon after.

3. Events of this reign. William I. had always resisted the power of the Pope, and claimed the right of appointing bishops, and of investing them with ring and crozier, just as he used to hand lance and sword to a military vassal. Archbishop Anselm resisted this claim, but Henry persisted in it. At last it was agreed that the Pope alone should give the ring, and that Henry should receive homage for all lay fiefs from which the bishops received revenue.—To help on the measures taken by his father to keep down the Welsh, Henry introduced a colony of **Flemings** from Flanders, and planted them in the district of **Ross** and **Haverfordwest**, in **Pembrokeshire**. Here they tilled the ground and built factories for the weaving of cloth; and, supported by the **Lords Marchers**,¹ held their own against all the attacks of the Welsh and the Welsh princes.

¹ *March* (i.e. border) has the other form of *mark*. Hence *Denmark* and *Finnmark*, the *mark* or *confines* of the Danes and Finns. Hence also *Marquis*, *Markgraf*, the verb *mark*, and others. Hence, probably, too, the word *market*, as all places for exchange would be on the borders of two countries or states.

(i) This was the standing quarrel between the Archbishops of Canterbury and the Kings of England about **Investiture**. The bishops and abbots held broad lands, and were most of them great barons; and the King insisted on his right of appointing these bishops and abbots and of **investing** them with their offices by giving them the **ring** and the **staff**; and then of receiving from them **homage** for their lands. But the Church Council of 1099 commanded Anselm to resist the claims put forward by Henry I.; and the Pope ruled that the giving of the ring and staff implied the bestowal of a **spiritual** office. Accordingly, Anselm refused to do homage to his new King, or to consecrate the bishops whom Henry had created. Neither side would give way. Henry went on making bishops; Anselm went on declining to consecrate them. It was at length agreed that the election of bishops should be placed in the hands of the cathedral clergy, but that the choice should be made in the King's Court. The temporal estates were to be conferred by the King. The bishop chosen was to do homage for his land; and the archbishop was thereafter to consecrate him, and give him the ring and staff. Dr. Lingard says: "If Henry surrendered an unnecessary ceremony, he still retained the substance."

(ii) The **Flemings** (= Flanders folk) were spinners and weavers of wool. A colony of them also settled at Worsted in Norfolk, and gave this name to woollen yarn.

4. **The White Ship, 1120.**—Henry spent the three years from 1117 to 1120 in Normandy, for the purpose of keeping down the turbulent barons, and of securing the succession to the dukedom for his son William, "the Atheling," as he was proudly and fondly called by the English. To further this end he married him to Matilda, daughter of the Count of Anjou. On his return to England, the King set sail, accompanied by a crowd of nobles. The ship in which his son William was embarked was called the *Blanche Nef*; ¹ and, filled with young nobles and drunken sailors,—for the young prince had distributed stoups of wine among the crew,—it lingered till evening behind the rest of the royal fleet. At length it cast loose from the pier. Driven by the arms of fifty excited rowers, it swept at the highest speed out of the harbour; but there was no head to guide, and the ship, ill-rowed in the darkness of the coming night, struck against the rock of Catteville and filled rapidly. Prince William put off in a small boat, but the shrieks of his sister, the Countess of Perche, moved him to row back to the wreck, and his boat was sunk by the maddened crowd who tried to swarm over its sides. One man only, a butcher of Rouen, was saved out of three hundred. Henry heard the news next morning, fell speechless to the ground, and was never seen to smile again.

Prince
William
drowned
1120.

¹ This is the Old French form of the Latin words *Blancs Navis*, "White Ship."

5. **Henry's Second Marriage.**—The good Queen Maud had died in 1118, and Henry had married again. But his second wife had no children; and he therefore resolved to settle the crown upon his daughter Matilda. To do this, he had to have recourse to a good deal of scheming. Matilda had been married to Henry v., Emperor of Germany; but, soon after her brother's death she became a widow. The barons detested the notion of a woman's rule; a female sovereign was a thing as unknown in England as in Normandy; but Henry had won over many of them by means of his constant and faithful agent—gold. He also married Matilda to Geoffrey, the son of the powerful Count of Anjou; and their son was Henry Plantagenet,¹ afterwards Henry II.

The first to take the oath of fealty to Matilda was **David**, king of Scotland. The second was **Stephen**, Count of Bologne, son of the Conqueror's daughter Adela, and therefore nephew of Henry and cousin of Matilda. The third (though he claimed the second place) was **Robert**, Earl of Gloucester, the illegitimate son of the King, and the jailer of his uncle Robert of Normandy.

6. **Henry's Death, 1135.**—Henry died in Normandy on the 1st of December. He was very fond of lampreys, and after a day spent in hunting, he ate very heartily of them. His body was brought to England and buried in Reading Minster, which he had himself built.—The three great events of his reign were the conquest of Normandy, the crushing of the baronial power, and the small beginnings—the faint dawn—of the power of the middle classes in the towns. During this king's reign, the spirit of the English people began to grow into a national spirit; and his policy went a long way to undo the wrongs that the Conqueror had wrought upon the people and the country. By the victory of Tenchebrai—an English victory upon Norman soil—he atoned for the defeat at Hastings. Normandy, through him, became an appanage of the English Crown, whereas England under the Conqueror had been an appanage of Normandy; and the strong English middle class—the class which gives itself to industry and commerce—under his care began to show that it might one day become an equipoise to the military power of the barons. He granted a charter to London; and many other boroughs received from him charters based on the model of this. In his brother's time the people fled to the woods when they heard of a

¹ *Plante de genêt (genista), that is, broom* He wore a sprig of broom in his cap.

"Royal Progress." But he put an effectual stop to the misconduct of his Norman attendants ; and the English who marked and felt this new and unheard-of procedure learned to speak of him as the "Lion of Justice," foretold in the prophecies of the ancient Welsh magician and soothsayer, Merlin. To provide for the succession, Henry had caused all his barons to swear allegiance to Matilda ; and among others, Stephen, his nephew, Count of Blois, and son of Adela, a daughter of the Conqueror, had taken the oath.

(i) The **Battle of Tenchebrai** was fought by an army consisting chiefly of Englishmen against Normans and French. The King's brother, Robert, Edgar Atheling, and four hundred knights were taken prisoners.

(ii) An English writer of the time says : "Good man he was ; and great was the awe of him. No man durst ill-treat another in his time. He made peace for man and beast."

7. Great Men.—The two most distinguished men of this reign were **Anselm**, Archbishop of Canterbury, and **Roger**, Bishop of Salisbury—both churchmen. Anselm's policy strengthened and purified the Church ; the work of Roger was to organise the Courts of Law and the general administration of the affairs of the whole kingdom. He rose to be **Justiciar** and chief adviser of the King ; and he did his utmost to strengthen the old Saxon organisation, and to graft upon it the customs and procedure of Norman law. He brought the revenue and the laws of the kingdom into excellent order ; he gave new life to the **hundred-moots** and the **shire-moots**, ordered them to meet regularly as they used to do in Saxon times, and placed at their head a **sheriff**, who was not an officer of the barons, but of the king. Thus a certain amount of unity was introduced into the life of the kingdom ; and cheap and ready justice brought to the doors of all.

(i) The **Great Council** or "Magnum Concilium" takes the place of the Witan (or Witena-gemot) in this reign. But it is no longer a meeting of "The Wise Men," but of the chief barons.

(ii) The business of the country was done chiefly by the **King's Court** or "Curia Regis." It was a kind of standing committee of the Great Council. If the King was not present, the **Justiciar** took his place. This Court tried disputes between the chief vassals of the Crown, and also cases brought up on appeal from the **Shire-moots** (or County Courts). Thus all the County Courts were connected with and dependent on the King's Court. Justices were also sent through the country on **circuit**, and, in this way, one system of law bound together the whole country, and the king could make his power felt in every part of his dominions.

(iii) The Court of **Exchequer** managed the accounts of the kingdom and collected the taxes. The **Justiciar** was the head of this Court. The **Chancellor of the Exchequer** (who was the King's Secretary) and the great officers of the Royal Household, also sat in it. This Court was also a kind of committee of the Great Council.

(iv) The Chancellor, later on, became the king's chief adviser; and, later still, the **Treasurer**, or—as he is now called—the **First Lord of the Treasury**.

(v) Bishop Roger of Salisbury made his son Chancellor of the Exchequer, and his nephew, the Bishop of Ely, Treasurer. Thus he was the most powerful man in the kingdom.

(a) At first, the **JUSTICIAR** was appointed only when the king was abroad. Under the Norman and early Angevin kings, he was the chief adviser or Prime Minister of the king. Gradually he became more and more of a law-officer; and his name is preserved in the modern title of "Chief-Justice."

(b) The **EXCHEQUER** got its name from the cloth chequered like a chess-board which covered the table; and on these checks the money was counted out. The Sheriffs brought up each year the taxes from each county, and received in return "tallies" (from *tailler*, to cut), which were long pieces of wood notched for pounds, shillings, and pence. The stick was then split in half; one half was given to the Sheriff, the other half remained in the Exchequer; and the notches were of course the same in each. That is, they *tallied*. These tallies were preserved in the Exchequer Court in London till the year 1834; and it was their dry condition that was the chief cause of the burning of the Houses of Parliament in that year.

8. Social Facts.—Unlike his two predecessors, Henry did not love fighting, but only made war when he was compelled by others—and in order to secure peace, law, and order. He encouraged commerce and manufactures in every way he could. He gave a charter to London; he introduced the Flenish weavers into Wales and England; he fixed the standard of measurement (his own arm being taken as the measure of the English yard); and he ordered that taxes should be paid in money and not in kind.

(i) The **Charter** given to the city of London empowered it to hold the "ferm" of Middlesex at a yearly rent of £300; to carry on trade free from toll; and to elect its own sheriff and justiciar. Thus no London citizen could be tried outside the walls of the city.

(ii) **Salisbury Cathedral** was erected in this reign.

(iii) The first *arched* bridge in this country was built over the river Lea to the east of London by the ex-Empress Matilda. It was hence called **Bow Bridge**.

9. Scotland to 1124.—The reign of Edgar was a reign of peace. The most important event that occurred in it was the marriage of his sister Edith, afterwards called **Matilda**, to Henry I. in the year 1100. "It was a union between the two families which were on the way towards dividing between them the rule over the island of Britain. But, still more momentous, it was the union of the heir to the Norman Conquest with a daughter of the old Saxon race of kings." Edgar died in 1107, and was succeeded by his brother **Alexander I.**,

commonly called "The Fierce." He was attacked by some of the powerful chieftains of the north, but succeeded in defeating them and in driving them back beyond the Moray Firth. He died a natural death in 1124, and was succeeded by his younger brother **David I.**—the third son of Malcolm Canmore who had succeeded to the Scottish throne.

When Edgar died, he requested that his younger brother David should be ruler of Cumbria. The purpose of this was to prevent the Normans from intruding too much upon Scotland. Cumbria, at that time, separated Scotland from England on the west, and formed a kind of buffer between the two countries.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY OF HENRY I.'s REIGN.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>1100. HENRY I. IS CROWNED. (i) He grants a Charter of Liberties. (ii) He arrests Flambard. (iii) He recalls Anselm. (iv) He marries Edith (or Maud).</p> <p>1101. Robert comes to England and claims the crown. He receives a pension and withdraws.</p> <p>1103. Anselm has a dispute with Henry about investiture, and leaves England.</p> <p>1106. Battle of Tenchebrai.</p> <p>1107. Roger of Salisbury becomes Justiciar. He organises the King's Court.</p> <p>1109. Death of Anselm.</p> <p>1114. Henry's daughter Matilda marries Henry v. Emperor of Germany.</p> <p>1117. Henry goes to Normandy for three years.</p> | <p>1119. Battle of Brenville, in which Henry destroys all the hopes of William Fitz-Robert (or Clito).</p> <p>1120. Henry returns to England. William the Atheling, his son and heir, is drowned.</p> <p>1126. The Great Council (now=Witan) swears fealty to Matilda (widow of the Emperor Henry), and accepts her as "Lady of England and Normandy."</p> <p>1128. Matilda marries Geofrey of Anjou.</p> <p>1131. The Barons again swear fealty to Matilda.</p> <p>1133. The Barons again swear fealty to Matilda on the birth of her son (afterwards Henry II.).</p> <p>1135. Robert of Normandy dies in prison. Henry himself dies.</p> |
|--|---|

BATTLES AND TREATIES OF HENRY I.'s REIGN.

- | | |
|---|--|
| <p>1100. Henry I.'s Charter: (i) The Church to be free; and the King not to keep Sees vacant; (ii) Reliefs to be just; (iii) The laws of Edward the Confessor to be retained, with the improvements made on them by William the Conqueror.</p> | <p>1106. Battle of Tenchebrai, in which Robert is captured and his power is utterly broken.</p> <p>1107. Anselm and Henry agree about Investiture (see p. 78).</p> <p>1119. Battle of Brenville, in which William Clito's hopes are destroyed.</p> |
|---|--|

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p>1107. Edgar of Scotland dies, is succeeded by Alexander I.</p> | <p>1108. Philip I. of France dies, is succeeded by Louis the Fat.</p> |
|---|---|

CHAPTER IV.

STEPHEN AND HIS ENEMY MATILDA

Stephen born 1094. Succeeded (at the age of 41) in 1135. Died 1154.

Reigned 19 years.

STEPHEN was the third son of Stephen, Count of Blois. His mother was Adela, the eldest daughter of William the Conqueror.

MATILDA was the only daughter of Henry I.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

SCOTLAND: DAVID I.

FRANCE: LOUIS VI.

MALCOLM IV.

LOUIS VII.

1. **Stephen of Blois, 1135-1154.**—Before the body of Henry could be carried to its grave, Stephen, regardless of his oath, had left Normandy, crossed to England, and presented himself at the gates of London. He had always been a popular man with the citizens and magistrates of London, had resided among them—in the Tower Royal (where Cheapside now stands)—and had given and accepted feasts and dinners with great good-humour and prodigality. The National Council could not be summoned, for neither baron nor bishop was present; but the aldermen called together a folk-mote¹ and chose him king “for the good of the realm.” He was crowned at Westminster. In this procedure he had upon his side his brother Henry, Bishop of Winchester—whose influence in the Church was great—and also the fact that he was the nearest male heir to William the Conqueror. As usual, he gave a charter, in which he promised to respect the rights of the Church, to restore certain forest lands, and to observe “the laws and customs of the good King Edward.” The barons did not like the idea of obeying a woman, of swearing to be

¹ Meeting of the people from their wards. *Mote* comes from *meet*. A meeting in or of the ward is called a *ward-mote*. The older form of the word is seen in *Witenagemote*.

her "liege-man of life and limb"; and Stephen, having seized the vast treasures amassed by Henry I., easily purchased their support. He also gave them large grants of crown-lands, sent for mercenary soldiers from Flanders and Normandy, and thought himself tolerably secure upon the throne. But the strong hand that had kept the barons down was gone, and the story of this reign is a story of civil war, of lawlessness and disorder, and of the destruction of agriculture and commerce.

(i) On the death of Henry, the English country people attacked the deer in the royal forests; and in a few days there was hardly a beast of the chase left alive.

(ii) Another reason for the dislike of the Norman barons to Matilda was the fact that they hated her husband, Geoffrey of Anjou; and still another was that she represented the system of William the Conqueror and his two sons—the object of which was to weaken the independent power of the barons. They had never allowed a baron to build a castle without a special licence.

(iii) Stephen had been made **Earl of Leicester** by Henry, and was the most popular baron in England. The Normans also accepted Stephen as their duke.

2. Battle of the Standard, 1138.¹—King David of Scotland, the uncle of the ex-Empress Matilda, prepared to invade England in the cause of his niece. He marched south as far as Northallerton, in Yorkshire; but Thurstan, the Archbishop of York, summoning baron and freeman to his side, marched to the field to meet the enemy. He made a popular appeal to the English nationality, by calling out the farmers under the banners of their Saxon saints. Their standard was a ship-mast mounted on a wagon, hung with the banners of three saints, and with a silver casket on the top, in which the archbishop had placed the consecrated wafer. Round this the Normans and English formed a ring of steel armour, bristling with battle-axe and spear and sword; and against this ring the wild Scots, unarmoured and in plaid, hurled themselves time after time. The ring was impenetrable; they were utterly defeated, and the whole army fled in confusion to Carlisle.

Battle
of the
Standard
1138.

(i) Thurstan had raised the **fyrd** (or militia) of the North.

(ii) The three saints whose banners hung on the mast were St. John of Beverley, St. Wilfrid of Ripon, and St. Peter.

(iii) This battle was really won by the long-bow of the English yeomen—a weapon they had learnt to ply from the South Welsh.

¹ Sir W. Scott has given a picturesque account of the battle in his "Tales of a Grandfather."

3. **The landing of Matilda, 1139.**—Violent proceedings on the part of the King against the Bishop of Salisbury, the **Justiciar** of the kingdom, had lost Stephen the support of the Church; and in the midst of this quarrel, Matilda and her half-brother, Robert of Caen, the **Earl of Gloucester**, landed at Portsmouth. And now, for the long period of eight years, hardly a week passed in which there was not some fighting done in some part of England. After the first year of fierce and unsparing warfare, Stephen was taken prisoner at the siege of Lincoln Castle, and sent off to Bristol in chains. Now began what may be called the "**Reign of Matilda**," which lasted only eight months. Matilda next marched to Winchester, where Stephen's own brother, the bishop, received her, and induced the council to acknowledge her as "**Lady of the English**."¹ She then moved on to London, but her haughtiness and the heavy taxation she laid on the city so offended the citizens that they rose in a body against her and drove her out. The country was divided: the west supported Matilda, and London and the east were on the side of Stephen. In the course of the war the Earl of Gloucester was also taken prisoner; and he and the King were exchanged² against each other. The war now broke out more hotly than ever; Matilda was besieged in the castle of Oxford by Stephen; and she only escaped by disguising herself in a white robe and travelling on foot through the snow. She made her way to Normandy. At last, in the eighth month of the war, the Earl of Gloucester died; and Matilda, knowing that she was powerless without him, gave up the contest in 1147.

Matilda,
Lady of the
English
1141.

(i) Roger the Justiciar was still the chief adviser of the Crown; and his son was **Chancellor**, and his nephew the Bishop of Ely was **Treasurer**. These three barons (for they were barons as well as bishops) began to build themselves castles for their greater security in a time of civil war. They also came to court with long trains of soldiers and servants, as if they were great princes. Stephen took it into his head that their purpose was to make themselves independent of the Crown. He demanded the surrender of their castles. They refused. Stephen seized Roger, put him in irons, and threatened to hang his son unless the castles were given up. Roger died of a broken heart. The clergy were furious. The King's own brother, Henry, bishop of Winchester, left his party, and—being now Pope's **Legate**—called on the clergy to do justice without fear or favour. With the death of Roger, the laws remained in abeyance, and justice was not done in any part of the land.

¹ This title was no doubt chosen to attract the English to her side, and also to do away with the objections of the Norman barons to serve under a *Queen*.

² Each prisoner was set free, both being considered by the opposite sides as of equal value and rank.

(ii) The arrival of Matilda in England of course kindled a civil war; and in this war each baron had to look after himself. It was as if the country had broken up into many small separate kingdoms, the petty tyrant of each of which was at war with the others, and also always engaged in the pillage of the industrious.

(iii) The Welsh rose in many places and harried the English marches. The English are said to have tried to form a conspiracy for the massacre of the Normans.

4. The Struggle with Henry.—Quarrels with the Church kept Stephen's hands full; and Matilda, seeing an opportunity for fighting, sent her son Henry to his uncle David in Scotland. He invaded England from the north, but without success. Stephen now tried to induce Archbishop Theobald to crown his son Eustace; but Theobald resolutely declined, because Eustace had not been elected or re-elected by the Great Council. Henry now landed in England, when he was joined by a number of the barons; and the war broke out afresh, and with more bitterness than ever. In the course of this war Eustace died, and Stephen and Henry came to an understanding. At a general council held at Wallingford in 1153, it was agreed that Stephen should keep the crown as long as he lived; and Henry was adopted as his son and had allegiance sworn to him as his successor.

Henry
invades
England
1153.

(i) Henry had been knighted by his uncle David.

(ii) The **Treaty of Wallingford** arranged: (a) That Stephen was to rule while he lived, but that Henry was to be his heir; (b) that the old courts and laws were to be restored; (c) that all the castles that had been built without licence were to be pulled down; and (d) that all hired soldiers were to be sent out of the country.

(iii) After this treaty, Henry stayed a short time in England and acted as the King's Justiciar.

5. The State of the Kingdom.—Civil war is, of all kinds of war, the most terrible. More cruel things are done and said on both sides, and a greater shock is given to society, to industry, and to the works of peace. But, while this civil war was going on, chiefly with mercenary soldiers on both sides, the Norman barons were fighting among themselves, and in every part of the kingdom small civil wars were devastating town and country, making life hopeless and labour vain. The barons fortified their castles, and the bishops followed their example. One hundred new stone castles were built during this reign. Men of wealth were seized on the high-roads, carried off to prison, and there tortured till they gave up their property. Freebooters came over from Flanders, not to practise arts of industry as

in the time of Henry I., but to take their share in the general pillage. And, as the result of the horrors of a partisan warfare, "the neighbour could put no faith in his nearest neighbour, nor the friend in his friend, nor the brother in his own brother." Famine and disease reigned unchecked for half a generation.

(i) One account gives the number of castles as 1151.

(ii) A traveller would fly when he saw a stranger on the road ; the sight of two or three horsemen on the highway would send the whole population of a town to hide in their cellars ; it was useless ploughing, said the farmers, "they might as well plough the sea."

(iii) The *Saxon Chronicle*, the last chapter of which was written in the Monastery of Peterborough, says of the barons : "They took all those they thought had any goods, both by night and by day, men and women alike, and put them in prison to get their gold and silver, and tortured them with tortures unspeakable."

(iv) The *Saxon Chronicle*, just about its close, says of the barons : "They hanged up men by their feet and smoked them with foul smoke. Some were hanged up by their thumbs, others by the head, and burning things were hung on to their feet. They put knotted strings about their head, and writhed them till they went into the brain. They put men into prisons where adders and snakes and toads were crawling, and so they tormented them."

(v) Of the hired foreign troops it says : "Never yet was there such misery in the land ; never did heathen men worse than they. Christ slept and all his saints. They spared neither church nor churchyard, but took all the goods that had been placed for safety there, and then burnt the church itself."

6. Death of Stephen, 1154.—In less than a year after the settlement with Henry, Stephen died at Dover ; Henry was summoned from Normandy, and the first Angevin¹ or Plantagenet king ascended the throne. Stephen was a man of noble presence, a good soldier, affable and pleasant in his intercourse with every one. But he was no ruler. If a series of agreeable personal interviews could have kept men faithful to him, no king would ever have had such loyal servants. He had great force of character, but no grasp of mind, and no conception of the different forces in his country which required control or regulation. The two great powers in the kingdom—the Baronage and the Church—were either hostile or indifferent ; he could attach neither to himself permanently. In one word, he was not a king, but only an able and brilliant baron. His rival Matilda erred too much on the other side. She kept every one at a distance. She was cold and haughty, and neither won nor could win the hearts of any.

¹ The adjective from *Anjou*.

7. Great Men.—The most distinguished men of this reign were Roger of Salisbury, Henry of Winchester, Robert of Gloucester, and Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury. The first of these men perished in the confusions and injustices of civil war. The second, who was the brother of the King, did what he could for the peace of the realm and the prosperity of the Church of which he was a bishop. The third was a strong and able man in every sense; but he could not succeed when his sovereign was a person of so impracticable and selfish a character. Theobald was a man of strong good sense; he had been appointed Pope's Legate; and he used his influence with King Stephen to induce him to acknowledge Matilda's son Henry, who was now of age, as his successor on the throne.

8. Social Facts.—There was little chance for improvement of any kind in this reign—either in arts, or in letters, or in commerce. A lawyer, *Vicarius*, came from the old Italian University of Bologna, and gave a course of lectures on law—the law of the Church or *Canon Law*, and the law relating to ordinary affairs, or *Civil Law*. Sugar is said to have been first imported in this reign; our ancestors had used honey before they came to know of sugar.

9. Scotland to 1153.—David I. began to reign in the year 1124; and his reign lasted till 1153—twenty-nine years. His relation to England is remarkable from two important points of view. In the first place, his sister Matilda (or Edith) had married Henry I. In the second place, he himself had married the heiress of the rich and powerful Waltheof, Earl of Northumberland. But, in addition to all this, he had been, since the year 1108, Earl of Huntingdon in the very heart of England. He was, on this account, in the habit of frequenting the English Court, among the other great nobles. He was also one of the nobles who had sworn allegiance to Matilda, daughter of Henry I. This oath he took as Earl of Huntingdon. When, in furtherance of Matilda's cause, he led an army into England in 1138, he no doubt had also in his mind the desirability of strengthening his hold on the Earldom of Northumberland. Another point worthy of note is that it was from the hands of David I. that Henry II. of England (the son of Matilda and Geoffrey of Anjou), his grand-nephew, received the honour of knighthood.—He died at Carlisle

in 1153. His son Henry, Earl of Huntingdon, had died before him ; and he was succeeded by his grandson **Malcolm IV**

(i) "Since the year 1108 David had been Earl or Lord of the Manor of Huntingdon in England ; and this, which made the King of Scots an affluent English nobleman, with estates in the very heart of the dominions of the Norman Kings, had a powerful influence on the subsequent fate of Scotland. . . . It is not quite clear whether the Manor of Huntingdon was a portion of Earl Waltheof's estates assigned to David, or was given to him as compensation for Northumberland."—**HILL BURTON**.

(ii) David I. founded several bishoprics, among them Glasgow and Dunkeld ; and several abbeys, the most famous of which are Holyrood, Melrose, and Dryburgh. He spent so much of the crown-money on the Church that he was called by one of his successors "ane sair sanct for the Crown" ; and he was often mentioned as "the sore saint."

(iii) The Kingdom of Scotland had at this time no settled boundaries either on the north or on the south. On the north the **Mormaor of Ross** made inroads, and had to be beaten back.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF STEPHEN'S REIGN.

1135. Stephen is chosen King in London. He grants a charter.	1147. Death of Robert of Gloucester.
1138. David of Scotland, the uncle of Matilda, is defeated at the Battle of the Standard .	1151. Henry, son of Matilda, becomes, by the death of his father, Count of Anjou and Duke of Normandy.
1139. Stephen arrests Roger, his Justiciar. Matilda lands at Portsmouth . The Civil War of Succession .	1152. Henry marries Eleanor of Guienne , the divorced wife of Louis VII. By this marriage, he acquires Poitou, Guienne, Gascony, etc. etc.
1141. Stephen is taken at the Battle of Lincoln .	1153. Treaty of Wallingford .
1142. Matilda is besieged at Oxford . She escapes to Normandy.	1154. Death of Stephen.

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.

1147. Second Crusade , preached by St. Bernard.	1154. Nicholas Breakspear , an Englishman, is created Pope under the title of Adrian IV . (He is the only Englishman who has ever worn the papal tiara.)
1151. The Irish Church is organised by a bull from the Pope .	

ENGLAND UNDER NORMAN RULE.

1. A New Nation.—With the coming in of the Normans, the condition of England and of Englishmen was entirely altered. We have, first of all, the fact that a nation of foreigners had entered the country and stood over-against the native English ; and, secondly, that the warlike leader of these foreigners was the unquestioned landowner of all the land in the kingdom. The English noblemen and gentry had disappeared ; and a less kindly rule than theirs had come in their place. All the untilled folk-land had become royal forest, and harsh laws were made to punish those who hunted in it. The Crown gradually became more and more strong ; and the tendency was for all power to become centralised in the court and household of the king. William I. put down the great earldoms ; William II. tried to get as much of the wealth of the Church as possible into his hands ; and Henry I. organised the law-courts and strengthened the administration of the law.—The Church grew under the Norman kings, in wealth, in learning, and in zeal ; and in many parts of the country stately and beautiful cathedrals replaced the smaller and plainer Saxon churches.

The word *forest* has nothing necessarily to do with trees. It comes from the Latin *foris* out of doors ; and a *forest* is a piece of land taken out of the domain of the common-law, and placed entirely within the power of the King as an individual. "The forests offered to the King a revenue, an armed force, and a jurisdiction altogether *outside* the ever-narrowing circle of his constitutional position." The armed force consisted of foresters, beaters, drivers, stewards, woodreeves, bailiffs, etc., who formed a kind of royal police.

(i) Henry I. ordered that no dogs should be kept but mastiffs ; and that all dogs kept for droving should have two of their toes cut off (a ring was kept by the foresters through which the dog's feet had to pass), so that they could not hunt the deer. This was called "lawing" the dogs.

(ii) The great officers of the Crown were the **Justiciar**, who corresponded to our Prime Minister *plus* the Lord Chief-Justice ; the **Chancellor**, who issued grants, writs, and warrants, for and from the King ; the **Treasurer**, who managed the Exchequer. These great offices were generally held by Churchmen.—In addition to these, the King's Household contained a **Dispenser** (or Steward), a **Chamberlain**, a **Marshal**, posts generally held by laymen—and which very soon became hereditary.

The **Exchequer** was so called because the table on which the moneys were counted was covered with cloth marked with squares like a chessboard ; and counters were placed on these squares to represent the different sums. *Tallies* were long slips of wood notched on the edges with certain marks to represent certain sums ; they were then split in two, and the payer and payee kept each one half, which served as check upon the other.

(iii) Though William I. put down the greater Earldoms, he made two new Earldoms—**Chester** and **Shrewsbury**, for the purpose of keeping and guarding the Welsh Marches

2. Language.—One effect of the introduction of Norman-French was to discourage the use of English as a language for literature. English was and always remained the *spoken* language of the people ; but, as the ruling classes spoke French, and the Church employed Latin, the use of English in books became always less and less. The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, which was written in English, still went on, and continued down to the year 1154. At the same time, the Normans imported a large number of Norman-French words ; and the English people learned these of the Normans. They imported words relating to war ; to feudalism ; to the chase ; to law ; to the Church ; and to cookery.

(i) The chief Norman-French words relating to war are : *Armour, battle, captain, mail, vizor, joint, lance.*

(ii) Those relating to feudalism are : *Homage and fealty ; vassal and esquire ; herald and scutcheon, etc.*

(iii) The terms relating to the chase are : *Brace and couple ; chase and course · covert and forest ; quarry and venison.*

This *quarry* is not to be confounded with *quarry* (= a stone-mine), which comes from the Low Latin *quadrare*, to square. *Quarry* here comes from the French *curee*, the hide. When the game was run down, the hide and entrails were generally thrown to the dogs.

(iv) The words relating to law are : *Assize and attorney ; chancellor and court ; judge and justice ; plaintiff and sue, etc.*

(v) The Church words are : *Ceremony, friar, penance, relic, tonsure, etc.*

(vi) The terms relating to cookery are : *Boil, pantry, beef, mutton, veal, pork, poultry, etc.*

"When the brute lives and is in the charge of a Saxon slave, she goes by her Saxon name ; but becomes a Norman and is called *pork*, when she is carried to the castle-hall to feast among the nobles." The cooked flesh had a Norman, the uncooked animal an English, name. Compare *beef* and *ox* ; *veal* and *calf* ; *pork* and *pig* ; *mutton* and *sheep*.

3. Customs.—The Normans introduced into England the habit of wearing much richer dresses of costlier materials, long curly-toed shoes from Anjou, and ornaments of gold and jewellery. They brought in also richer and more elaborate kinds of furniture, hangings, etc. The very words *curtain, chair, chamber, costume, dress, furniture, garment*, we owe to the Normans ; and, along with the words, they also brought in the things. Norman names for men and women—such as Matilda, Alice, Henry, William, and suchlike—began to push out the homelier English names.—**Craft-guilds**—clubs for the mutual support and protection of those who belonged to the same craft or occupation—began to rise in the towns ; and, as peace and trade grew, these guilds also grew and prospered.

4. Population.—The population of England at this time amounted to nearly 2,000,000 souls ; and, of these, it is estimated that 250,000, or one-eighth were Normans. The land was still densely wooded or

covered with swamps and morasses ; and there was little room for a large population. "If one would form a just idea of England conquered by William of Normandy, he must figure to himself—not a mere change of political rule—not the triumph of one party over another,—but the intrusion of one people into the bosom of another, the violent placing of one society over another society. He must imagine two nations, of one of which William is a member and the chief—two nations which were both *subject* to William ; but, in the one case, *subordinate*, in the other, *subjugated*. He must consider that there are two countries included in the same geographical circumference,—that of the Normans, rich and free ; that of the Saxons, poor and serving, vexed by rent and tallage ; the former full of spacious mansions, and walled and moated castles,—the latter scattered over with huts and straw and ruined hovels ; that peopled with the happy and idle—with men of the army and of the court—with knights and nobles,—this with men of pains and labour—with farmers and artisans ; on the one side luxury and insolence, on the other misery and envy—not the envy of the poor at the sight of opulence they cannot reach, but the envy of the despoiled in presence of the despoilers."—THIERRY.

(i) At the end of the eleventh century, there were in England 9500 *tenants*—military and church.

(ii) Of *freeholders* (yeomen) there were 35,000—all to the north and east of Watling Street, and also in Kent. The more warlike habits necessary in the eastern counties, and the admixture of Danish blood, had made and kept these men independent.

(iii) Of *cottars* and *bordars* there were 90,000. Many of these had been freeholders ; but, south and west of Watling Street, many of them had sunk into subjection to lords.

(iv) There were 109,000 *villeins*, who held small portions of land at the will of their lord, and were bound to give to him what service he demanded.

(v) There were 25,000 *serfs* or *theows*, who were the chattels or personal property of their owners.

(vi) The rest were citizens of towns (burgesses), priests, monks, etc.

(vii) The number of families in all is given at 300,000.

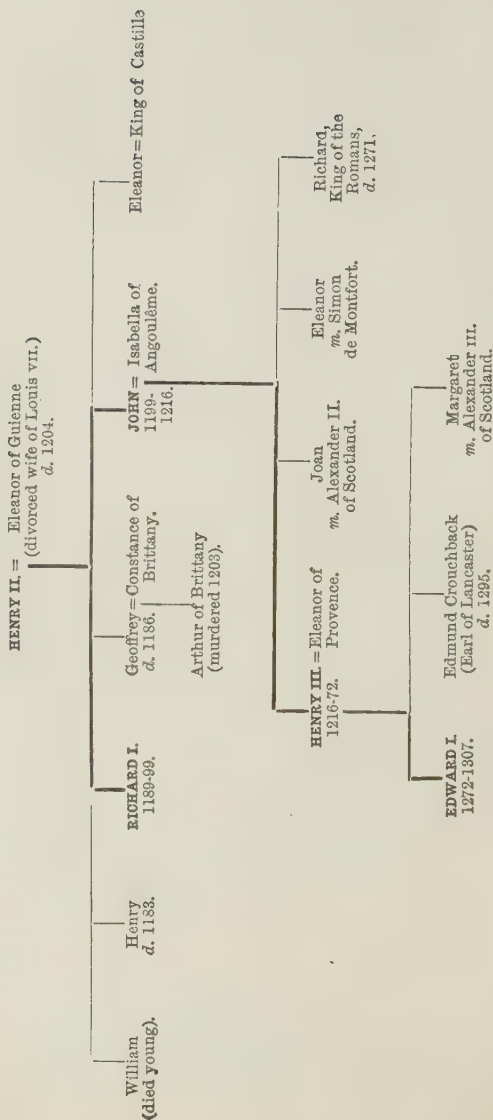


BOOK III.

THE EARLIER ANGEVIN KINGS

CALLED ALSO PLANTAGENETS

EARLIER ANGEVIN KINGS, FROM 1189 TO 1307.



CHAPTER I.

HENRY THE SECOND

Born 1133. Succeeded (at the age of 21) in 1154. Died 1189.

Reigned 35 years.

HENRY II. of England, the first Angevin King of this country (called also Henry Plantagenet, Curtmantle, and Fitz-Empress) was the eldest son of Geoffrey, Count of Anjou, and Matilda, daughter of Henry I. He was born at Le Mans. At the age of eleven, he came to England and was educated under Robert of Gloucester, in Bristol Castle. He married Eleanor, the daughter of William, Duke of Aquitaine—and the divorced wife of Louis VII. of France. “He was a tall stout man, with a short neck, and projecting but very expressive eyes; he was a careless dresser, a great hunter, and a man of business rather than a model of chivalry.”

(a) Henry's great-grandfather, Geoffrey, Count of Anjou, used to wear a sprig of broom (*plante-genêt*, in Lat. *planta genista*) in his cap; and thus received the nickname of “Plantagenet.”

(b) “Englishmen saw in the grandson of ‘good Queen Maud’ the direct descendant of the old English line of Kings of Alfred and of Cerdic.”

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

SCOTLAND : MALCOLM IV.

FRANCE : LOUIS VII.

POPE : ADRIAN IV.

WILLIAM I.

PHILIP AUGUSTUS.

ALEXANDER III.

(“the Lion”).

1. **The Angevin Possessions.**—Henry II.'s ruling passion was the hunger for land; and so many additions were made to his realm by marriage or by conquest that his rule extended from the Scottish river Tweed to the French Pyrenees, and he held twice as much of France as the French king himself. He also held, before his reign had come to an end, the larger half of Ireland. He was thus by far the most powerful European king of his time. When he came over to England, the English people met him with joy, partly because peace had come again, and partly because Henry was a king

of their own blood.¹ He was crowned at Westminster on the 19th of December 1154—the first king of the Plantagenet race,—a race which was destined to rule England for more than three centuries. He had been well educated at Bristol by the Earl of Gloucester, and he took pleasure in the company of literary and intelligent men; he had no national prejudices; and under him the distinction between Norman and Englishman very soon died out. He set to work with all his might to undo the evil effects of the conduct of Stephen and the barons. He pulled down more than eleven hundred castles—most of which were only the dens of public robbers; he disbanded the mercenary troops; he annulled Stephen's reckless grants of land and money, and he appointed judges to travel at regular periods through the country administering justice and redressing wrongs.



HENRY II.'S POSSESSIONS IN FRANCE.

(The Provinces marked F. came from his father; M. from his mother; and W. from his wife.)

third, with the rebellion of his sons and the attacks of his enemies. But, through all these three periods, and along with the preoccupations of them, there ran the perpetual care and study of Henry for the reform of the law and the law arrangements of the whole kingdom.

(i) Henry possessed from his father, Anjou and Touraine; from his mother, Normandy and Maine; by his wife, Poitou, Marche, Saintonge, Limousin, Guienne, and Gascony. "The greatest prince of his time for wisdom, virtue, and abilities, he was also the most powerful in extent of dominion of all those that had ever filled the throne of England."

(ii) Henry's reign is easily divisible into three parts: the first, which is occupied with the restoration of order; the second, with the long quarrel with Becket; the

¹ Being the grandson of Edith, the wife of Henry I.

(iii) Henry also compelled Malcolm, king of Scots, to give up Cumberland and Northumberland.

(iv) "Henry Plantagenet was a foreign king who never spoke the English tongue, who lived and moved for the most part in a foreign camp, surrounded with a motley host of Brabançons and hirelings; and who, in intervals snatched from foreign wars, hurried for a few months to his island-kingdom to carry out a policy which took little heed of the great moral forces that were at work among the people. It was under the rule of a foreigner such as this, however, that the races of conquerors and conquered in England first learned to feel that they were one."—GREEN.

2. Thomas Becket, 1118 to 1170.—The life of Henry II. was filled chiefly with three things: the curtailing of the inordinate power of the barons; the quarrels with his sons; and his long struggle with Thomas of London, or **Thomas Becket**. Becket is the most striking figure of this reign and of this century. He was the son of Gilbert Becket (or à Becket), the portreeve¹ of London, a rich Norman merchant. His mother was a devout and pious woman, and every year, as his birthday came round, she weighed her son against bags of money, clothes, and provisions—all of which were then given to the poor. Becket had first won the favour of Henry by having persuaded the Pope to refuse his sanction to the succession of Eustace, the son of Stephen. He was one of the best educated men of his time—tall, handsome, high-spirited, and brave. He was not the man to do things by halves. Educated at Paris, he had there been introduced to Theobald, the Archbishop of Canterbury, who made him his confidant.

(i) The story of Becket's mother being a Saracen woman is now exploded. She was Maud of Rouen, the daughter of a merchant.

(ii) Young Becket learned courtly behaviour and knightly manners in the house of Richer de L'Aigle; business in the office of Osbern Eightpenny; and classics and law in the Universities of Paris and Bologna.

3. Becket as Chancellor.—Henry raised Becket to be Chancellor—the first position in the land; for the Chancellor was in fact the one minister who directed everything in the State, who had great power over the Church, and who also possessed the power of the purse. Becket was sent to negotiate the marriage of Prince Henry with Margaret the eldest daughter of the French king. On that ^{Becket} ^{Chancellor} journey he took with him as his bodyguard two hundred ^{1154-62.} knights and nobles, and in his train there travelled altogether a thou-

¹ The reeve who took care of the port of London. The shirereve (or sheriff) looked after the affairs of the shire. The portreeve was the old equivalent for the more modern mayor.

sand persons, "marching through the towns of France with laden wagons and sumpter-horses, bearing coffers of money and plate, and holy vessels of his chapel, with the strange accompaniments of a monkey on each horse; whilst two hundred and fifty pages sang verses, and standards waved and esquires bore the shields of the knights, and soldiers and priests rode two and two." There was, in fact, no limit to his luxury and magnificence. But in June 1162, the King, after long discussion and many entreaties, at last forced him to accept the archbishopric of Canterbury. And now a great change comes upon the man. He determines to serve God and the Church with as single and as zealous a mind as he had before served the King. He wears a monk's frock and a haircloth shirt; he wears them day and night, never taking them off; he feeds the poor daily in his private rooms, waits upon them himself, and washes their dusty and travel-stained feet; he entertains great lords and barons in his halls, but to his own table he admits only monks. Instead of the old banquet music, he has a Latin religious book read aloud; and when he is at mass, he weeps and sighs and groans in remembrance of his former sins and shortcomings.

(i) As Chancellor, Becket was keeper of the King's Seal, which was attached to all Treaties and Charters; he was foreign minister; he was almoner,—or distributor of the royal alms; he filled vacant Sees in the Church, and he was the King's Counsellor in all important affairs.

(ii) Becket warned the King that he would repent making him Archbishop of Canterbury, and that, as churchman, he must "put God before the King."

4. The Clergy.—King Henry had appointed Thomas Becket to be archbishop, because he thought him the ablest man in the kingdom to fight the battle of the State against the too prosperous and powerful Church. Henry was as anxious to curb the power of the Church as he had been to put down the tyranny of the barons. There was at that time in England one law for the clergy and another for the laity; and the Church was an independent power in the country, standing over against the State and not at all in awe of it. The number of persons in holy orders was enormous—almost every person who could read and write; and there were no fewer than seven orders of clergy. These orders were sought for by many persons as a security against want, and as a protection against the oppressions of the lay barons. Becket, as the Primate of the Church, was determined to preserve all its privileges, and even to increase its power. All the materials for a

bitter quarrel between the King and the Archbishop were now ready ; and a small spark set fire to the heap. A clerk accused of a crime had been arrested by the order of his bishop and brought before an ecclesiastical court. He was found guilty ; but his only punishment was degradation—that is to say, the court unfrocked him.¹

Persons belonging to the order of the clergy were called *clerics* or *clerks* ; laymen were the *lewed* or *lewd*.

(i) It was William the Conqueror who removed the bishops from the Shire-moots, and set up separate courts for the Church and for churchmen.

(ii) "The canons had excluded clergymen from judgments of blood ; and the severest punishments they could inflict were flagellation, fine, imprisonment, and degradation. It was contended that such punishments were inadequate to the suppression of the more enormous offences, and that they encouraged the perpetration of crime by insuring a species of immunity to the perpetrator. As every individual who had been admitted to the tonsure, whether he afterwards received holy orders or not, was entitled to the clerical privileges, we may concede that there were in these turbulent times many criminals among the clergy."—LINGARD.

(iii) It must not be forgotten that persons "admitted to the tonsure" were not priests : they had not the power of administering sacraments. They were "clerics," that is, they had been admitted to a certain rite of the Church, and were possible candidates for admission to, even though they might have no intention of taking, holy orders. As clerics, they could claim "benefit of clergy," as indeed might any one who at the time was able to read. Hence the word "clergy" meant something very different in the time of Henry II. from what it means now.

(iv) "Tonsure," says Chambers's *Cyclopædia*, "is not an 'order,' but only 'a preparation for orders.'"

5. The Constitutions of Clarendon, 1164.—Henry called together a great council at Clarendon, near Salisbury ; and his lawyers there drew up a series of articles—since known as the *Constitutions of Clarendon*—which were to regulate the relative positions of crown and crozier, of Church and State. These Constitutions settled, among other things, that "criminous clergy" were to be handed over to lay justice and tried by ordinary law ; that there was to be no appeal to Rome ; that no bishop could leave the country without the consent of the King ; and that the sons of serfs were not to be admitted to priest's orders without the consent of the lord of the soil. Becket at first accepted these rules, but afterwards withheld his seal from them. Then he took an oath to observe them ; then he suspended himself from his office, and imposed upon himself a penance for having taken that oath. Amidst fightings within and fears without, his mind had no rest ; and at last he had to flee to France, where, from a French

¹ Stripped him of his priest's gown, and deprived him of the protection of ecclesiastical law as to future offences.

pulpit, he excommunicated all who should in any way abet, enforce, or obey the Constitutions of Clarendon. Henry now persecuted the Cistercian monks in England, because Becket had taken refuge in a Cistercian monastery ; and he also drove out of England all Becket's friends and relatives, to the number of four hundred. At last it was agreed that this kind of warfare was bad for both sides, and that Henry and Becket should meet ; and they met on the 22d of July 1170, near Touraine.

(i) The chief articles in the Constitutions of Clarendon were :—

- (a) Criminous clerks to be tried in the King's Courts.
- (b) No clergyman to leave the country without the King's consent.
- (c) Appeals from Ecclesiastical Courts to go to the King, and not to the Pope, unless with the King's consent.
- (d) Clergy to hold their lands as tenants-in-chief.
- (e) Sons of villeins not to be allowed to take orders without the leave of their lords.

(ii) The struggle between Becket and the King went on for six years.

6. The Crisis.—Becket returned to England in the same year, and was met on his landing by the Kentish burgesses and the poor with glad hearts and resounding shouts of welcome. But the weary-hearted man only said, "I am come to die among you." Before returning to England he had sent letters of suspension against the Archbishop of York, and of excommunication against the Bishops of London and Salisbury ; and the three prelates at once set sail for Normandy to lay their complaint before the king. Henry burst into a fit of uncontrollable rage. "Is there none of you cowards," he roared, "whom I feed at my table, who will rid me of this base, low-born priest ? The fellow came to my court on a lame horse, without a saddle, and now he holds the throne, and the knights who eat my bread look on !" It was resolved that the Justiciar of Normandy should be sent next day to England to arrest him ; but four of Henry's knights, stung by their King's reproaches, secretly left the court, and made all haste by sea and land over to Canterbury.

(i) Henry, in imitation of the French and German fashion, had had his son Henry crowned King of England during his own lifetime. The ceremony had, in the absence of Becket on the Continent, been performed by Roger, Archbishop of York. But the right of crowning the Kings of England belonged to the See of Canterbury, and Becket held that Roger had stolen his right.

(ii) The names of the four knights were : Reginald Fitz-Urse, William De Tracy, Hugh de Moreville, and Richard le Breton. They were allowed to atone for their deed by a pilgrimage to Palestine, where they all died.

7. The Murder of Becket.—On the 29th December 1170 they rode up to the Cathedral. On their way they met Becket, and urged him to take off the excommunication ; he refused. They followed him into the Cathedral, seized and tried to carry him off. He resisted ; they lost their self-command ; all four attacked him with their swords, and the Archbishop of Canterbury lay dead in front of the high altar of his own Cathedral.

Becket
murdered
1170.

M

(i) When his monks saw a shirt of the coarsest haircloth which he wore beneath his splendid robes, and the marks of the stripes left by his daily penance, they proclaimed him a martyr, and, not long after, a saint.

(ii) "All Christendom had been watching the strife ; all Christendom was outraged at its close. The Pope shut himself up for eight days, and refused to speak to his own servants."

(iii) The dead body of the saint began to work miracles ; and the shrine of St. Thomas became the most famous in England. He was "the holy blissful martyr ;" and the touch of one of his bones wrought miraculous cures. The King issued an order prohibiting the miracles ; but he might as well have forbidden the stars to rise.

8. The Results of Becket's Death.—A thrill of indignation ran through Christendom at this brutal murder ; Henry was horror-struck, and in daily fear of excommunication ;¹ pilgrimages were made to Becket's tomb ; miracles were said to be wrought there ; and St. Thomas became at once the most popular of all the English saints. Henry cleared himself to the Pope of the charge of being an accomplice ; but very bitter troubles were in store for him. In 1173, his three sons, incited by the King of France and their own mother Eleanor, rebelled against him ; and the league was joined by France, Flanders, and Scotland. Henry, "the Younger King," as he was called, demanded the realm of England, for which he had been crowned ; Richard, who was governor of Aquitaine,² and Geoffrey, Duke of Brittany, raised armies in Normandy and Aquitaine ; while several barons rose in Yorkshire, the Midland Shires, and the Eastern Counties. Henry was terribly alarmed. The guilt of Becket's murder still weighed heavy on his

League
against
Henry

1173.

¹ This would have freed all his barons, prelates, and others from their allegiance, and have given a right everywhere to all dissatisfied persons to rise against him.

² The country between the Garonne and the Pyrenees.

conscience; and his first act, before taking up arms, was to pay a pilgrimage to the shrine of the murdered Archbishop. On the 8th of July 1174, he crossed from Normandy and landed at Southampton.

(i) Henry publicly declared in the Cathedral of Avranches, that the death of the primate had not been ordered by him; and that it had caused him deeper grief than the death of his own mother.

(ii) The young Henry wished to be the real, and not merely the titular King of England during his father's life, or—if that was impossible—to be Duke of Normandy, and was angry because his father would not hear of it; the two younger also wished independent domains of their own; and their mother, Eleanor, who had been greatly neglected and even insulted by Henry, spurred her sons on in their course of disobedience and rebellion. The barons, who hated the firm rule and good law of Henry, hoped to get a king who would allow them to do what they liked in their own lands and with their own people.

9. The Penance of Henry.—From Southampton he rode all night into Kent, with no refreshment but bread and water. When the grey towers of the Cathedral first met his eyes in the early dawn, he at once alighted from his horse, and walked with downcast looks and in penitential garb, barefoot, to the city. He knelt at the tomb of his old friend and foe, in the deepest sorrow and humiliation. Then the great king, before the assembled monks and chapter, poured forth his contrition for the passionate utterance which his knights had too hastily interpreted, and submitted to be publicly scourged in expiation of his sin. He spent the night in the dark crypt;¹ and the next day he rode fasting into London. A fever followed, but he was cured of it in a few days by good news. For he was told that his powerful enemy, William the Lion, king of Scotland, had been surprised and taken prisoner by his justiciar, Ranulf de Glanville; and upon this the English rebel barons gave up their attempt. Henry himself soon raised the siege of Rouen, and put down the rebel forces both in England and in Normandy.

(i) Henry was scourged by eighty ecclesiastics: the bishops gave each five strokes, and the monks three.

(ii) On the very day on which Henry was undergoing this penance, Ranulf de Glanville captured William the Lion of Scotland. A messenger from Ranulf came to the King with the news. "Is it true?" cried Henry. "Yes, sire, by my faith." "Then God be thanked, and St. Thomas the Martyr!" The King gave the messenger his riding-switch and told him that "ten farms went with it as a reward for his good tidings."

¹ A dark secret place under the floor of the Cathedral.

10. **The Conquest of Ireland.**—Henry had obtained in 1156 a Bull¹ from the Pope giving him permission to make himself lord of Ireland. The Pope of the time was Adrian iv., or Nicholas Breakspear, the only Englishman who has ever sat upon the papal throne. The Pope's pretence was that the Irish people were ignorant of the Christian faith. The fact was just the reverse; for Ireland had received Christianity while the English and Norsemen were still heathens; and from Ireland missionaries had gone out in all directions to other countries. Ireland had long been a shelter for pious and learned men when Britain was overrun by Saxon, Dane, and Norseman. But the Norsemen had invaded Ireland also, and had founded small kingdoms in Dublin, Wexford, and Cork. The rest of the country was ruled by petty chiefs,—among whom were five who called themselves kings. The overlord of these kings was called an *Ardriach*. Now Dermot, king of Leinster, had been driven from his dominions by the *Ardriach*; and in order to recover his kingdom he fled to Normandy, and made Henry an offer of vassalage. Henry could not at that time go to Ireland himself to reinstate him on his throne; but he gave him leave to make what offers he pleased to his knights. Richard Strongbow, Earl of Pembroke, and two Norman gentlemen from Wales, Robert Fitz-Stephen and Maurice Fitz-Gerald, were very glad of the opportunity. They raised a small army, sailed across the Channel, and everywhere beat the Irish, who were without armour and had very inferior weapons. On the death of Dermot, Strongbow, who had married his daughter Eva, became king; but this Henry was not prepared to permit. He therefore sailed over to Ireland in 1171, and was received as Overlord of all Ireland, and even the *Ardriach* attended his court and acknowledged himself as his vassal. But neither Henry nor any Plantagenet after him ever really ruled Ireland, which remained for centuries in utter disorder—the battle-field of petty chiefs and kings and Norman barons, the home of quarrels and of fighting, with little hope or chance of quiet industry, except in the seaports and the fringe of coast in their immediate neighbourhood.

Henry
Overlord
of Ireland
1171.

Ardriach means Head-king.

¹ A paper signed by the Pope and sealed with his *bull* or great seal. The *bull* was the piece of lead which bore the papal seal, and which was attached to the paper or parchment. We have the same word in *bulletin*.

(i) Another statement is that the Pope claimed to have full jurisdiction and dominion over all islands as part of the papal domains.

(ii) Henry was to rule Ireland on condition of paying *Rome-Scot*—that is, a penny a year on each house.

Scot here, as in the phrase *scot-free*, means a piece of money. The literal sense is that of *contribution*=what is *shot* into the general fund.

(iii) The Norsemen were called *Ost-men* in Ireland, because they came from the east.

(iv) The five Irish kingdoms were *Ulster, Leinster, Meath, Connaught, and Munster*.

(v) *John Lackland* was sent over to rule; but his government was not a success. He had the title of "*Lord of Ireland*." It was *Henry VIII.* who first took the title of "*King of Ireland*."

11. The Death of Henry.—In 1188, Richard, the third¹ son of the king, made his way to the court of Philip Augustus, the new king of France, and joined with him in an attack upon his father's dominions. Their allied forces suddenly appeared before Le Mans, and Henry, surprised and unprepared, had to flee hurriedly before his own son into Normandy. The town, his birthplace, was burned down before his eyes; and he mourned bitterly over it as he rode along the crest of the hills which overhang the valley. He was driven from Touraine; one after another his French towns were lost to him; and soon after he was obliged to sue for peace from the French king. At the conclusion of peace he asked to see the list of barons who had rebelled against him, and whom he was obliged to pardon. At the head of the list stood "*John, Count of Mortagne*,"—his favourite son, his dearest child, and his most intimate confidant. Turning his face to the wall, he exclaimed, "Let the rest go as it will! I care no more for myself or anything in all the world!" He was borne to the Castle of Chinon, on the quiet waters of the Vienne; he never lifted his head again, and died muttering the melancholy self-reproach, "Shame, shame on a conquered king!" He died in 1189.

Death of
Henry
1189.

Another account says that his last words were: "Cursed be the day on which I was born, and cursed be God the children I leave behind me!"

12. Henry's Character.—Henry did two great services for England: he broke the power of the barons, and he initiated the reign of law. He brought the protection of law down to the poorest person. He dispensed with the services of his barons in the field, by compelling them to make a money payment instead; and with the money he hired mercenary soldiers. He was one of the hardest

¹ Henry II.'s eldest son, William, died in 1156.

working men in England, and one of the best business men too. "He never sits down, he is always on his legs from morning to night," said one who knew him; altogether a restless, eager, active, rough, busy, and passionate man. There were times when his fiery southern nature broke out; and then he became "a lion, and more ferocious than a lion." On one of these occasions, when a friend was trying to justify the conduct of the King of Scots, Henry shouted that he was a traitor, pulled off his sword, tore off his clothes, and threw himself on the ground, rolling, and biting, and snapping at the straw and rushes upon the floor. But, in general, he kept this demoniac temper under complete control; and most of his actions showed him to be a prudent, thoughtful, and sagacious statesman.

13. **Scutage**.—According to the feudal system, every man who held land from the king was obliged to follow his king to the wars, and to take with him a certain number of his sub-vassals, in proportion to the size of his holding. But, when agriculture had grown prosperous—when many men were needed to sow the ground and to reap the harvests, absence on a military expedition in Normandy or in France became a serious affair. Henry, therefore, at **1159**, the very beginning of his reign, brought back the old English custom of paying a fine when any man could not follow his baron or his king to the wars. But this custom, which was formerly regarded as a punishment, was now looked on as a favour; and the vassal who preferred staying at home and working on his farm could free himself by the payment of a sum of money, in proportion to the amount of land he held. This money was called **Scutage**; and, while it freed his English subjects, it enabled Henry to raise hired troops to fight for him in France. In this way also, he decreased the military power of the barons, and drew closer the bonds of connection between the sub-vassals and the Crown.

(i) By means of **Scutage** (or, as it was called in Norman-French, *escuage*), the barons had fewer soldiers to follow them, and fewer opportunities of training their sub-vassals to war. (Lat. *scutum*, a shield.)

(ii) In 1181 a regulation called the **Assize of Arms** was issued for the Fyrd or National Militia. (The Fyrd could not be ordered abroad.) It ordered each freeman according to his rank to appear in arms before the Judges of Assize once a year.

(a) The knight or squire had to appear in helmet, mail-coat, shield and lance.

(b) The yeoman in hauberk, iron headpiece and lance.

(c) The burgher and artisan in wadded coat, headpiece and lance.

14. Henry's Law-Reforms.—During the whole of his reign, troubled as it was with quarrels, disputes, and rebellions of every kind, Henry worked hard and steadily at his self-imposed task of reforming the law and the administration of the law. He never halted for a moment in this task. In 1166 he began the practice

Reform of County Courts of sending two judges from the King's Court (the Curia Regis) to preside in the Shire Moots (or County Courts).

1166. These judges not merely collected taxes, they also sat to judge cases; and in this way the whole of the County Courts throughout the realm were brought into connection with the central King's Court. He at the same time began a kind of trial by jury. In 1170, Henry dismissed, all at the same time and by the same proclamation, the sheriffs of the counties from their offices, and put in their places new sheriffs chosen from among the officers of the **Henry** Exchequer. In this way the Crown gained greater power **dismisses all the sheriffs.** in every shire; the administration of justice was more

1170. uniform throughout the country; and the kingdom was bound together in a closer unity. The power, too, of the barons was greatly diminished, as they were no longer sheriffs, and their places had been taken by King's officers. In 1176, the kingdom

Justices in Eyre was divided into six circuits; three travelling justices

1176. were appointed to each; and thus suitors were spared the time, trouble, and expense of attending at the King's Court in London. These travelling judges were called **Justices in Eyre.** Again, in 1178, a selection of five judges was made from the King's Court, to hear cases both criminal and civil; and out of this selection were afterwards developed the **Court of King's Bench** and the **Court of Common Pleas.** Thus England became one country, under one uniform government.

In Eyre = Lat. in itinere, on a journey.

(i) Henry was in the habit of issuing from time to time short codes or lists of rules, which he called **Assizes.** In one of these he ordered each sheriff to name four knights, who were again to choose twelve men in the neighbourhood to give evidence on trials. These men took an oath to speak the truth, and were hence called **jurors** (from the Lat. *juro*, I swear).

(ii) Another assize ordered that twelve jurors from each hundred and four from each township should bring to trial before the King's judges all persons who were believed to be guilty of a crime. This was called **Presentment by Jury.** These sixteen men formed a kind of **Grand Jury.**

(iii) "The great local noble who had lorded it as he chose over the suitors of the Court for fifteen years, and fixed and taxed and forfeited as seemed good to him, suddenly, without a moment's warning, saw his place filled by a stranger, a mere clerk trained in the Court among the royal servants, a simple nominee of the king: he could no longer doubt that the royal supremacy was now without rival, without limit, irresistible, complete."—GREEN.

(iv) Henry was constantly travelling to see things with his own eyes. "A new sense of law and justice grew up under a sovereign who himself journeyed through the length and breadth of the land, subduing the unruly, hearing pleas, revising unjust sentences, drawing up charters with his own hand, setting the machinery of government to work from end to end of England."

(v) In the first eight years of his reign, Henry was only twice in England, and each time for little more than a year. In the eighteen years from 1162 to 1180, he was only eight years altogether in this country. "Had the Plantagenets, as at one time seemed likely, succeeded in uniting all France under their government, it is probable that England would never have had an independent existence. Her princes, her lords, her prelates, would have been men differing in race and language from the artisans and tillers of the earth. The revenues of her great proprietors would have been spent in festivities and diversions on the banks of the Seine. The noble language of Milton and Burke would have remained a rustic dialect, without a literature, a fixed grammar, or a fixed orthography, and would have been contemptuously abandoned to the use of boors. No man of English extraction would have risen to eminence, except by becoming in speech and habits a Frenchman."—MACAULAY.

(vi) The Norman and English were rapidly becoming one people by intermarriage. Though French was the Court language, and Latin the language of law and of learned men, English was the language of by far the larger majority of the people—whether gentle or simple.

15. Great Men.—The great men of this reign, over and above Henry himself, who was among the very greatest, are **Archbishop Theobald, Thomas Becket, Richard de Lucy, and Ranulf de Glanville.** The two first were churchmen; and Becket more especially strove his utmost and eventually gave his life to preserve to the Church its power and ancient privileges.—Richard de Lucy, for twenty-five years Justiciar of the kingdom, was a skilful lawyer, and carried out with great ability and zeal the law-reforms of his sovereign. After his death this task was carried on by his able successor Glanville.

Henry worked at everything himself. Even when abroad in Normandy or in Guienne, fighting or making treaties, he was always thinking of reforms in English law.

16. Social Facts.—Commerce grew and developed very much in this reign. The Crusades had the effect of introducing much more frequent intercourse between the East and the West; and trade gained

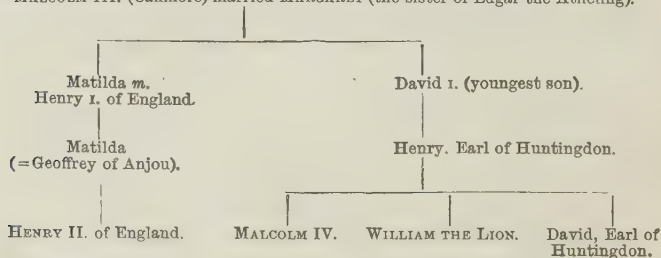
enormously by this intercourse. The spices, rich cloths and hangings, the gold and gems, of the East were exchanged for the tin, lead, oysters, fish, wool and cloths of England.—**London** became the capital of England, instead of Winchester; London Bridge was partly rebuilt of stone; and, as London stands at the head of all the waterways of the world, it was destined both to give to and to receive from the growing commerce of the country increase and healthy development.

Glass was first used for windows in private houses in 1177.

17. Scotland to 1165.—David I. was succeeded by his grandson **Malcolm IV.**, a boy of not quite twelve years of age. Malcolm was cousin to Henry II. of England; and to the English monarch he gave up his claim to Northumberland and to that part of Cumbria which lay to the south of the Solway. On the other hand, Henry solemnly reinvested him in the honour and earldom of Huntingdon; and the youthful Malcolm followed his great cousin in his Continental wars. Malcolm died in 1165, at the early age of twenty-four.

(i) The following table shows the relation of the two kings :

MALCOLM III. (Canmore) married **MARGARET** (the sister of Edgar the Atheling).



(ii) **WILLIAM I. (the Lion)** was succeeded (1214) by his son, **Alexander II.**; and then by his grandson, **Alexander III. (1249).**

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF HENRY II.'s REIGN.

- | | |
|--|--|
| <p>1154. Henry II. is crowned, and issues a Charter. Thomas Becket is made Chancellor.</p> <p>1157. Henry forces Malcolm, king of Scots, to give up the three northern counties.</p> <p>1159. Scutage first established.</p> <p>1162. Thomas Becket elected Archbishop of Canterbury. He resigns the Chancellorship.</p> <p>1163. A dispute arises about criminous clerks.</p> <p>1164. THE CONSTITUTIONS OF CLARENDON are drawn up. Becket leaves the kingdom. Quarrel goes on for six years.</p> <p>1170. (i) Henry removes all the Sheriffs, and makes an inquiry into their accounts. Henry, the king's son, is crowned by Roger, Archbishop of York.</p> <p style="padding-left: 2em;">(ii) Becket is murdered.</p> <p>1171. Henry goes to Ireland.</p> | <p>1173. League against Henry by his three eldest sons, the King of France, the King of Scotland, the Norman barons, etc.</p> <p>1174. Henry does penance at the tomb of Becket. The rebellious barons are conquered. Danegelt ceases to be collected.</p> <p>1177. John Lackland is named "Lord of Ireland."</p> <p>1183. The Saladin Tithe. This is the first tax in England on personal property.</p> <p>1189. Death of Henry II.</p> <p style="padding-left: 2em;">(i) Saladin had united the small Turkish States into one great dominion, which stretched from the Euphrates to the Nile, and had taken Jerusalem.</p> <p style="padding-left: 2em;">(ii) The Saladin Tithe amounted to one-tenth of all the goods and personal property of each subject.</p> <p style="padding-left: 2em;">(iii) All previous taxes had been laid upon land.</p> |
|--|--|

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

- | | |
|--|--|
| <p>1154. Nicholas Breakspear, an Englishman, becomes Pope with the title of Adrian IV.</p> <p>1156. Adrian IV. issues a Bull empowering Henry II. to subdue Ireland.</p> <p>1165. Malcolm of Scotland is killed. He is succeeded by William the Lion.</p> | <p>1166. Henry's fourth son, Geoffrey, marries Constance, heiress of Brittany.</p> <p>1169. Richard Strongbow and other Normans land in Ireland.</p> <p>1180. Death of Louis VII. of France. He is succeeded by Philip Augustus.</p> <p>1187. Saladin takes Jerusalem.</p> |
|--|--|

IMPORTANT ACTS OF GOVERNMENT.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>1164. The Constitutions of Clarendon.</p> <p>1166. The Assize of Clarendon arranges for the administration of justice in the provinces.</p> | <p>1176. The Assize of Northampton sends out justices on circuit.</p> <p>1178. Five judges are selected from the Curia Regis "to hear all suits brought before the King."</p> |
|--|---|

(i) The Assize of Clarendon arranged for a general visitation of England by two justices.

(ii) Out of the five judges selected from the Curia Regis grew the Court of King's Bench and the Court of Common Pleas.

CHAPTER II.

RICHARD THE FIRST

(OF AQUITAINE)

Born 1157. Succeeded (at the age of 32) in 1189. Died 1199.
Reigned 10 Years.

RICHARD of AQUITAINE (called also the Lion and the Lion-Heart, or Cœur-de-Lion) was the third son of Henry II. and Eleanor of Aquitaine. He was born at Oxford in 1157. At the age of eleven he was made Duke of Aquitaine by his father. He married Berengaria of Navarre at Cyprus, on his way to the Holy Land. They had no children.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

SCOTLAND : WILLIAM I. (the Lion).

FRANCE : PHILIP II. (Augustus).

1. **Richard I., 1189-1199.**—Immediately after the funeral of his father, Richard left France, sailed to England, and was crowned King at Westminster without opposition. His reign—if reign it can be called, for he spent in England only six months out of the ten years during which he held the throne—falls easily into two almost equal divisions : his absence on the Third Crusade and his captivity ; and his prolonged wars against his old friend and enemy, Philip II. of France. For England itself he had little care and no policy.

(i) Richard was called Richard of Aquitaine, because he had been made ruler of that duchy by his father in his lifetime ; and he received the nickname of *Cœur-de-Lion*, because of his enormous strength and dauntless courage in battle. He was not only a warrior,—he was a poet ; and he sang and wrote lyrical songs in the soft southern language of Oc.¹

¹ Called *Langue d'Oc*, because the word for *yes* was *oc* (from the Latin *hoc*, this) ; whereas in the North the word was *oui* (now *oui*, from the Latin *illud*, that). The language was also called *Provençal* (from *Provence* in Southern France, which was called by the Romans *Provincia*), and it was a kind of transformed Latin.

(ii) A full account was drawn up of the formalities and ceremonies observed at his coronation ; and this has been always observed as the model for all after coronations at Westminster.

(iii) The Jews, who were the bankers—and also the usurers—of England, lived as a separate people in quarters of several English towns called *Jewries*, governed by their own laws and under the immediate protection of the king. On the coronation-day some of the Jewish elders brought rich gifts to the king. No Jew or woman was allowed within the Abbey for fear of witchcraft ; but these poor elders were hustled and thrust by the crowd inside the doors. The king's servants drove them out ; the mob fell upon them ; a cry arose that the king had commanded all Jews to be slain ; and the crowd rushed off to the Jewry to plunder, to slay, and to burn. The rumour spread. At York, the rich Jews took refuge with their treasures in the Castle ; and, when they saw they could hold out no longer, they put their wives and children to death, and last of all slew themselves.

2. Money wanted.—His first thought after his coronation was to join the Third Crusade, and how to raise money for that expedition. He sold everything he could lay his hands upon ; he sold the church-lands, crown-lands, and offices of State ; he sold half the honours and dignities of the kingdom—sheriffdoms and justiceships—to the highest bidders ; he levied heavy taxes, and wrung large sums from individual barons to appease a pretended anger ; and he “would have sold London itself,” he said, “if he could have found a purchaser.” The king appointed a Norman called **William of Longchamp**, Bishop of Ely, to be justiciar and regent during his absence. Longchamp was a man after his own heart, hesitated at no measure, drew back from no course to gain his ends and to raise money for his hungry master.

(i) He sold to William the Lion his right of superiority over the crown of Scotland for 10,000 marks, and thus released William from vassalage to England. He sold the Earldom of Durham to the Bishop of Durham, Hugh de Puiset (or Pudsey), for the same sum ; and thus turned “an old bishop into a young earl.” William of Longchamp, bishop of Ely, bought the Chancellorship of the kingdom for £3000.

(ii) The regency of the kingdom, during the absence of Richard, was vested in Longchamp and Hugh of Durham. Longchamp was not only **Chancellor** and **Justiciar** of the kingdom ; but he had been created **Papal Legate**.

3. The Third Crusade, 1189.—Richard solemnly assumed the scrip and staff of a pilgrim in the cathedral of Canterbury, and met Philip Augustus, king of France, on the plains of **Vezelai** in Burgundy. Their united forces amounted to one hundred thousand men.

Instead of sailing direct to Palestine, the two kings spent the winter in Sicily, where they and their nobles and their men were continually quarrelling. Philip felt jealous of a vassal—for **The Third Crusade 1189-92.** Richard was Philip's vassal for some of his French lands—more brilliant and more powerful than himself, and was also angry with him for not having kept his engagement with his sister Alice. Richard had in the meantime fallen in love with **Berengaria** of Navarre, a gentle fair-haired maiden, and had sent his mother, Queen Eleanor, to bring her over to him in Sicily.—The siege of Acre¹ had been going on for two years, with little prospect of success; but



Richard, on his arrival, pressed on the work with unusual vigour, in spite of severe illness, and in a few days the place was taken. Richard, greedy of glory, took all the credit to himself; and when the Duke of Austria, who had captured one of the towers, hoisted his banner upon it, Richard tore it down with a great oath, and flung it into the ditch.—The king of France now took it into his head to return home. He said he was ill;

and he swore to Richard an oath—which he did not keep, and did not intend to keep—to do nothing to the hurt of Richard's interests in France. After prodigies of valour on both sides, Richard, weakened by fever, had to give up the thought of taking Jerusalem, and to make a three years' truce with Saladin—the Saracen Emperor. He wept bitter tears at this disappointment; and, when within sight of the Holy City, covered his face with his mantle, that he might not see the place which God had forbidden him to enter.

(i) **Berengaria** was the daughter of Sancho, king of Navarre.

(ii) When Philip II. got back to France, he set to work to conspire with John for an attack on Richard's French dominions.

4. Richard's Return.—Richard now set out for Europe with one vessel. He was afraid to travel through France; so he disguised himself as a merchant, and made his way through Austria. But the

¹ In the Levant, the eastern shore of the Mediterranean.

foreign gold he carried with him betrayed him ; and he fell into the hands of the man whom he had so cruelly insulted at Acre—Leopold, Duke of Austria. By him he was sold to Henry VI., the Emperor of Germany, for £60,000 ; and Henry imprisoned Richard in a castle in the Tyrol. In 1193 he was brought before a Diet¹ (or Council) of the Empire, which met at Worms,² and arraigned on four charges. The chief of these was that he had hired assassins to murder Conrad, Marquis of Montferrat, one of the rival kings of Jerusalem. Richard pleaded his own cause with great eloquence ; and was acquitted by the princes of the empire ; but Henry detained him until England should forward a large ransom. So heavy was the ransom, that every man in England had to give a fourth of his income. Everything that could be sold had to be turned into money ; the fleece was shorn off every sheep ; and even the sacred vessels of the churches were sold or placed in pawn. The ransom was 150,000 marks. At last Richard landed at Sandwich in 1194, after an absence of four years and an imprisonment of fourteen months. He walked barefoot from Sandwich to Canterbury, to return thanks to God for his great deliverance ; and, to wash off the stain of his imprisonment, he was crowned a second time at Winchester.

Richard in
England
1194.

(i) As soon as his brother John heard the news of Richard's imprisonment, he did homage to Philip for the duchy of Normandy.

(ii) The pretty story of Blondel is, unfortunately, untrue. He is said to have wandered over Europe with a lute, playing the songs which his master had composed, under the grated window of every castle, until his master's voice replied.

(iii) Every man, clerk or layman, was taxed to the extent of one-fourth of his rents and his movable property ; each knight had to pay an additional sum as scutage ; and even the silver vessels were taken out of the churches.

5. Longchamp's Regency.—Longchamp was a hard and far from just ruler ; but he applied the laws impartially to bishop and priest, to baron and serf. But this impartial rule was detested by the barons ; John Lackland joined with his half-brother, Geoffrey Fitz-Peter, to get rid of Longchamp ; and a meeting of the earls and barons of the kingdom was called, at which Longchamp was deposed from his office. He retired to Normandy in 1191. A new Justiciar

¹ From the Low Latin *diæta*, a public assembly.

² *Worms*—a town in the Rhine valley, south of Mayence. Here Luther, in 1521, was summoned to appear before Charles V., Emperor of Germany, at a Diet of the German Empire, since called the Diet of Worms.

of the realm was appointed. John, who had been treacherous to his father, was also treacherous to his brother, and, upon the news of Richard's captivity in Austria, John declared he was dead, and laid claim to the crown of England.

(i) **Longchamp** offended the barons in many ways. Being supreme both in Church and State—as Papal Legate and as Justiciar—he travelled about in royal pomp with a train of 1500 men, a band of minstrels, and a body of personal attendants consisting of nobles and gentlemen. As Justiciar and as Legate, he placed double taxes on the religious houses; and, for this and other reasons, he came to be universally detested. John's aim was to come forward as protector of the nation against this tyranny.

(ii) The new Justiciar was Walter, Archbishop of Rouen.

6. Hubert Walter's Regency.—From the year 1194 to 1198 the kingdom was governed, during Richard's absence, by Hubert Walter, the Archbishop of Canterbury. Hubert had been secretary to Henry II.; and he earnestly carried out the policy of that great king in legislation, as well as in finance. But, while engaged in raising money and in seeing to the proper administration of justice, he did a great deal to train the English people to habits and methods of self-government. He showed them how to assess the taxes of each district by jury; and he taught them how to choose representative knights for the transaction of judicial affairs. In this way he laid the foundations of representative government.

(i) One of his measures was distinctly unjust. He laid a poll-tax upon the people of London; and this poll-tax, which was nothing to a rich man, pressed with fearful severity on the craftsmen and the poor. The citizens, led by Fitz-Osbert, or Longbeard, resisted this tax, and held that each man should pay his share of the taxation according to his means.

(ii) Hubert sent a force to arrest Fitz-Osbert; but he fled to the Church of St. Mary-le-Bow for sanctuary. Hubert set fire to the church, seized him as he tried to escape, and hanged him with nine of his followers.

7. Death of Richard, 1199.—Richard, on his return, forgave his brother John, but at once made ready to wage war with his faithless ally, the King of France. After a stay of only two months, he left his realm of England, never to return. The two kings "played at castle-taking." Philip was twice defeated—at Fretteval and at Gisors. At the battle of Gisors in 1198, Richard gave as the watchword of the day, "GOD AND MY RIGHT,"¹ and this has remained ever since the motto of the English Crown. Soon after,

¹ He gave it in French, of course—*Dieu et mon droit*.

Richard met his death. One of his vassal lords had found a treasure at Limoges, and Richard claimed it as the feudal superior. The vassal refused to give it up, and Richard besieged his castle of Chalus Chabrol. He led the attack in person, and had fought his way into the inner court, when an arrow from the bow of Bertrand de Gourdon pierced his left shoulder. The knife of an unskilful surgeon caused the wound to mortify, and Richard lay for twelve days on his deathbed. He had the whole garrison hanged, with the exception of de Gourdon. "What harm did I ever do you?" said the king. The young archer replied that his father and two brothers had fallen by Richard's hand, and challenged him to take any revenge he pleased. "I forgive you my death, and you are free,"¹ was the answer of the king; and he ordered him to be presented with a hundred shillings. By his mother's desire, he named his brother **John** his successor. His body was buried at the foot of his father's tomb at Fontevraud; and his heart was sent, by his own express wish, to Rouen—a town for which he always felt a strong affection.

Richard
mortally
wounded
1199.

(i) From 1194 to 1198, while Richard was fighting in France, England was governed by Hubert Walter, Archbishop of Canterbury, who—like Longchamp—was both Legate and Justiciar, and who carried out the legal and financial reform of Henry II.

(ii) To support his wars, Richard taxed in every way his officers could devise his already impoverished country of England. About £1,100,000 sterling was sent to the king in two years; and "England was reduced to poverty from sea to sea."—Among other mean devices, Richard had the Great Seal broken and a new one made: he then proclaimed that no grant under the old seal was valid in England; and thus all holders of grants of land were compelled to come to the office of the Chancellor and pay their fees a second time.

(iii) The treasure found by Richard's vassal was reported to consist of "a golden emperor and all his court sitting at a golden table." It was most probably a large golden chess-table with the pieces in gold.

8. Richard's Character.—"Richard was, physically, the strongest of living men; and he was also physically the most inaccessible to fear. He had all the indomitable and limitless will of the race of Rollo. He was the genuine type of a feudal knight." He was tall, well-built and muscular, of a ruddy complexion, and with light brown hair. He was a brave soldier, a good general, and a skilful engineer;

¹ The leader of his mercenary troops, Marchadee (or, in French, Merchadé), had him put to death in the most cruel manner.

but he was more of a knight-errant than of a ruler of men. He died in his forty-second year. He had reigned nearly ten years, but he had passed only six months of these years in England. His brother John was acknowledged king in England and Normandy; but Anjou, Maine, and Touraine did homage to Arthur, the son of his elder brother Geoffrey, the late Duke of Brittany.

9. Great Men.—The most distinguished men during this reign were **William of Longchamp**, **Hugh of Avalon**, **Hubert Walter**, and **Geoffrey Fitz-Peter**. Three of these men administered the affairs of the kingdom, in the absence of their sovereign, with great ability, and generally on the lines clearly and firmly laid down by Henry II. But, though never intrusted with the rule of the kingdom, the greatest of them all was Hugh of Avalon, Bishop of Lincoln, who was called St. Hugh after his death. It fell to the lot of this simple and good man to resist the exactions of his king; and nobly he rose to the occasion. Hubert Walter, Archbishop of Canterbury, who was both Justiciar and Legate from 1194 to 1198, proposed to the barons and bishops that they should maintain for the king, during his wars in France, a force of three hundred knights, who were to be paid a sum of three shillings a day. Hugh of Lincoln refused his assent. The estates of the Church, he said, were bound to afford the king military service within the four seas, but not beyond them; and he for his part would not pay a single shilling. "I will go away," he added, "and be a hermit once more, rather than lay this new burden on the bishopric committed to my charge." And the "Great Council," in which this proposal was brought forward, followed the lead of the brave bishop. This is the first real instance of successful resistance to illegal taxation in our history; and in this manner did St. Hugh lay one of the four corner-stones of English liberty.

10. Social Facts.—There is not much to chronicle in this reign in regard to social progress. The need felt by Richard for money to enable him to go on crusade compelled him to grant charters to boroughs in exchange for sums of various amount; thus the commercial classes rose into greater importance; and London, among other towns, purchased several new "liberties." The *communa* or corporation of London was recognised in law; and the Portreeve

PLAN OF DATES
TWELFTH CENTURY

1100 William II. killed in the New Forest. HENRY I. Henry marries Matilda, daughter of Malcolm of Scotland.	1101 Robert claims the crown. Is pensioned and goes.	1102	1103 Anselm has a dispute about investiture and leaves England.	1104
---	--	------	--	------

1110			William the	
1111	1112	1113	1121	
			Henry marries Adela of Lorraine.	
1114	1115	1116	1224	
Matilda marries Henry V., Emperor of Germany.				
1117 Henry goes to Normandy for three years to fight against France, Anjou, and Flanders.	1118	1119 Battle of Brenville. William Clito is killed.	1127	Matilda

1140				
1141 Battle of Lincoln, Stephen taken.	1142 Matilda besieged at Oxford.	1143	1151	Henry
			Henry becomes, by the death of his father, Count of Anjou and Duke of Normandy.	
1144	1145	1146	1154 Death of Stephen. HENRY II. Thomas Becket Chancellor.	Henry d. new Henry re- royal d. Stephen.
1147 Death of Robert of Gloucester.	1148	1149	1157	

1170 Murder of Becket.				
1171 Henry II. goes to Ireland.	1172	1173 League against Henry of his three sons, the King of France, etc. etc.	1181 The Assize of Arms, to regulate the fyrd.	
1174 Henry does penance at the tomb of Becket. William the Lion, King of Scots, is captured at Alnwick.	1175	1176	1184	
1177 John Lackland "Lord of Ireland."	1178	1179	1187	The S.

H CENTURY

1105	1106	1107	1108	1109
Normans settle in Pembroke-shire.	Battle of Tenchebrai.	Roger of Salisbury Justiciar. Anselm and Henry agree as to election of bishops.		Death of Anselm.
King drowned.	1123	1130	1131	1132
	1126	1133	1134	1135
	The Great Council accepts Matilda as "Lady of England and Normandy."	Henry II. born Fealty is again sworn to Matilda.	Robert of Normandy dies in prison. Death of Henry I. STEPHEN and MATILDA.	1136
Geoffrey I.	1129	1137	1138	1139
		Battle of the Standard. Robert, Earl of Gloucester, disowns allegiance to Stephen.	Civil War. Stephen arrests Roger, Bishop of Salisbury, the Justiciar.	
Eleanor	1153	1160	1161	1162
Treaty of Wallingford.	1156	1163	1164	1165
Session of the	1159	1166	1167	1168
Scutage established.		1169		
1183	1186	1190	1191	1192
1189	1193	1194	1195	1196
1197	1198	1199		
Death of Henry II. RICHARD I. Richard goes on the Third Crusade.	Richard takes Acre. Corporation of London first legally recognised.	Richard captured by the Duke of Austria and sold to the Emperor, Henry VI.	Richard ransomed for 150,000 marks. He returns to England for two months.	Death of Richard. JOHN. Archbishop Hubert Chancellor.

became a **Mayor**. But the effects of the Crusades were much wider than this. They brought the peoples of Europe closer together, and taught them to know more of each other ; they opened up the East to the incursions of commerce, as well as of war ; and they drained the country of the violent and turbulent spirits, to whom ceaseless fighting was a necessary occupation and the pursuits of peaceful labour detestable.—The famous outlaw **Robin Hood**, “the English ballad-singer’s joy,” is said to have lived in this reign. He lived in Sherwood Forest, hunted the king’s deer, in spite of the Forest Assize, robbed the rich that came in his way, and gave to the poor.

(i) The first **Mayor** of London was **Henry Fitz-Alwyn**. (The title of *Lord Mayor* was first given by Edward III. in 1354.)

(ii) Coats-of-arms were introduced in this reign, to distinguish the knights who were cased in armour.

(iii) The use of silk stuffs, spices and perfumes became general. Tyrian glass, vessels of enamelled metal, and other products of art and skill were introduced into England.

(iv) **Sherwood Forest**, in Nottingham, is in the neighbourhood of Newstead Abbey, the patrimonial estate of Lord Byron.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF RICHARD I.'s REIGN.

1189. Richard I. leaves England to go on the Third Crusade.

1190. William de Longchamp is made Justiciar (he is also Papal Legate).

1191. Richard takes Acre.

1192. Richard is captured by Leopold, Duke of Austria, and sold to the Emperor Henry VI.

1194. Richard is set free for a ransom of 150,000 marks.

1198. Hugh, Bishop of Lincoln, refuses to pay money to support the war in France.

1199. Richard dies of his wounds.

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.

1189-92. Third Crusade.

1190-97. Henry VI. is Emperor of Germany.

1198. Florence an independent Republic.

CHAPTER III.

JOHN

Born 1167 Succeeded (at the age of 32) in 1199. Died 1216.
Reigned 17 years.

JOHN (called SANSTERRE or LACKLAND), Earl of Mortagne, was the fifth and youngest son of Henry II. and Eleanor of Aquitaine. He is the third king of the Plantagenet family. He was intended by his father to be King of Ireland. He married, first, HADWISA (or Hawis), granddaughter of Robert, the great Earl of Gloucester, who assisted Matilda against Stephen; and, second, ISABELLA of ANGOULÊME. The children of the second marriage were Henry III.; Richard, Earl of Cornwall and King of the Romans (that is, heir to the "Holy Roman Empire" of Germany); Joan, Eleanor, and Isabel.

(a) Joan married Alexander II. of Scotland.

(b) Eleanor married (i) William the Marshal, Earl of Pembroke; and (ii) Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester.

(c) Isabel married Frederick II., Emperor of Germany.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

SCOTLAND: WILLIAM THE LION
to 1214.

ALEXANDER II.

FRANCE: PHILIP II. (Augustus).

GERMANY: OTHO IV.

POPE INNOCENT III.

I. The Three Divisions of this Reign.—There are in this reign three well-marked divisions. The first is the war with Philip II. of France, which resulted in the loss of Normandy; the second is the dispute with the clergy of England, which ended in a complete and abject submission to Rome; the third is the long quarrel with the barons and people of England, the outcome of which was the signing of the Great Charter. And the total result of all these disputes was that John lost most of the Continental possessions of his family, and would also have lost the crown of England—had he not died in time.

2. **John Sansterre,**¹ 1199-1216.—When John was sent over to Ireland by his father Henry II. to receive the homage of the Irish kings and chiefs, he and his young friends amused themselves by tearing the long hair, plucking out the beards, and otherwise insulting the men who had come to submit themselves to him as vassals. He was accordingly recalled; and no great province was ever given him. Hence his surname of *Sansterre* or *Lackland*. John, Lord of Ireland 1177. John, upon the news of his brother's death, sent over Hubert, Archbishop of Canterbury, to England; and this priest called together a Great Council at Northampton, which elected John king.

(i) Hubert, in crowning John, was careful to remind him that, though Arthur, as the son of John's elder brother Geoffrey, had the better hereditary right, yet the nation had chosen *him* as the strongest and ablest man of his house. This looked like a recurrence to the "older rule" of election.

(ii) Hubert was made Chancellor of the kingdom.

3. **The Claim of Arthur.**—Philip of France took the part of young Arthur, Count of Brittany, and supported his claim to the French duchies. Prince Arthur was besieging his own grandmother (the mother of John) in her castle of Mirabeau; when John swept suddenly down upon the beleaguering army, routed it, and made Arthur and his sister Eleanor prisoners. Eleanor was kept in prison during her life—which lasted forty years more; and Arthur was sent to the Tower of Rouen, and never heard of again. It was generally believed that John put him to death with his own hand. John was summoned by Philip, as his overlord, to appear before a court of French nobles—his peers; and to answer to the charge of murder. He refused. He was accordingly found guilty, and adjudged to have forfeited his lands; and Philip very quickly overran Normandy, which submitted quietly to his rule. Nothing remained to John of his over-sea possessions, except the Channel Islands and the duchy of Loss of Normandy. 1204. Aquitaine. To England this loss was a gain. From this year of 1204, the sovereigns of England felt that they were Englishmen and not French princes; Norman barons could not live in France and spend their time fighting on English money; and it ceased to be a question used in hurling back a false accusation—"Do you take me for an Englishman?"

¹ This word exists in English as a proper name under the form of *Sangster*.

(i) John offered to appear before Philip and plead his own cause, if a safe-conduct thither and back were granted him. This was refused.

(ii) See Shakespeare's play of "King John," iv. 1, for the fate of Prince Arthur.

4. John's first great Quarrel.—The See of Canterbury had fallen vacant by the death of Hubert Walter; and two persons had been named as archbishop—one by the king and the other by the junior monks of Christ Church, Canterbury, the right of confirming either choice belonging to the Pope. To the disgust of John, Pope Innocent III. appointed neither, but gave the office to **Stephen Langton**, an Englishman of high character and great learning. John would not suffer Langton to land in England; and, to revenge himself still more, began to persecute the clergy in every way he could devise—and chiefly in the old Angevin way, by extorting money from and laying heavy taxes upon them. To punish the king, the Pope laid the whole country

**The Pope's
Interdict.
1208.**

under an **Interdict**. The churches were closed, and no sacraments were administered, except those of baptism and extreme unction;¹ the statues and pictures of the saints were veiled in black, and their relics were laid in ashes upon the altars; the church bells were silent; the churchyards were closed, and the dead buried in silence, without any service, in the fields, in ditches, and in waste places. The king replied to this action of the Pope's by confiscating the land of the clergy, and by allowing outrages against them to go unpunished. A Welshman had murdered a priest; but all the king said was: "Let him go, he has killed my enemy." Two years after the Interdict, the Pope proceeded to the

**John ex-
communi-
cated
1209.**

terrible sentence of personal **Excommunication**. John seized the property of the bishops. The next step of the Pope was a mere logical deduction from his previous act. The Popes had long claimed the right to remove wicked or unchristian rulers from their thrones; and Pope Innocent, the ablest, proudest, and most powerful of all the successors of St. Peter, accordingly pronounced against John the sentence of deposition, freed his subjects from their allegiance, and intrusted the carrying out of this sentence to John's greatest enemy, Philip of France. But, though Philip assembled his forces near Dieppe, he did not dare to invade the country.

¹ Sacrament for the dying.

(i) **Stephen Langton** was the "first scholar of his day."

(ii) The people believed that, by means of the **Interdict**, the whole land was given up to the dominion of evil spirits.

(iii) John's reply to the **Interdict** was to seize all the property and lands of the Church, and to leave to the clergy only enough for daily bread.

(iv) What frightened John even more than the Pope's **Excommunication** was the prophecy of a hermit, Peter of Wakefield, that, on next **Ascension Day**, John would be a king no more. At the same moment came the news that Philip was getting ready his fleet.

5. John resigns the Crown.—And now, in addition to dangers from without, there was a much more terrible danger within. The barons disliked John's rule—especially his heavy taxation, and detested John himself. His cruelties were sufficient to excite their deepest and most lasting hatred. The wife and child of De Braose, one of the Lords Marchers on the borders of Wales, were taken prisoners, were thrown into a dungeon in one of the royal palaces; and, while John was feasting in the rooms above, they were starved to death in the cells below. All over the country, the barons—with hardly one exception—plunged into secret conspiracies, and entered into alliances with Philip, with the King of Scots, and with Llewellyn, a great prince of Wales. John, on his side, was engaged in looking for alliances in France and Germany. But none of the princes of these countries would ally himself with an excommunicated man; and thus John, finding himself utterly unaided and alone, was obliged to make his peace with the Pope. To the wonder of the world and the disgust of his subjects, King John, on the 15th of May 1213, solemnly resigned his crown and kingdom into the hands of Cardinal Pandulf, the Pope's legate, promised to pay a yearly rent of 1000 marks for them, and received them back again as a Papal fief, to be held by him as the "man" and vassal of the Pope. "He has become the Pope's man," said the people of England; "he is a serf of the Pope's."

John resigns
the Crown
1213.

(i) "The barons and people looked on in amazed acquiescence; they did not, it would seem, all at once realise the shame of the transaction, or see that for them to be vassals of the Pope's vassal was to sink a long step in the scale of freedom, whether political or ecclesiastical."—**STUBBS**.

(ii) "Henceforth the Church in union with the barons and the people helps to limit the power which in the earlier days she had striven to strengthen."—**STUBBS**.

6. The Battle of Bouvines.—This battle marks the crisis in John's disgraceful career. The armies of Philip and of John's allies met at the bridge of Bouvines, a small town between Lille and Tournay, while John himself was absent fighting in the south. Philip gained a complete victory; and, when they heard the news, the nobles of Poitou at once deserted the cause of King John, who fled, baffled and humiliated, back to England. This battle was one of the decisive battles of the world; for, as a great historian says, "it is to the victory of Bouvines that England owes her Great Charter." Had John been successful in this battle, he would have thoroughly stamped out the resistance of the barons; and **Magna Charta**—and with it the whole body of English liberty—might never have existed.

(i) The allies of John were his nephew Otho iv., the Emperor of Germany, the Earl of Flanders, and the Earl of Salisbury, who was John's half-brother.

(ii) Philip stood forth for the moment as the mightiest king in Europe.

(iii) When John returned to England, after the battle of Bouvines, he set to work to fortify his castles; he brought over large numbers of hired troops from Flanders and Poitou; he tried to win back the clergy by granting them liberty of election to all ecclesiastical offices; and he "took the cross"—that is, became a Crusader, so as to put himself under the immediate protection of the Church.

People were preparing for the Fifth Crusade, which lasted from 1216 to 1220.

7. John's second great Quarrel.—When John landed in England, he found the barons no longer engaged in secret conspiracies, but openly united in one strong league in defence of liberty and law. At the head of this league stood the brave Stephen Langton, the Archbishop of Canterbury. For the third time in the history of England, the Church had stood up against the personal tyranny of kings, and in defence of the old English customs and the old English laws. Anselm had braved William II.; Theobald had delivered the country from the cruelty of King Stephen; and now Langton, at the head of the nobility, was ready to face, and if possible to put down, the tyranny of King John. Langton produced the charter of Henry I.; and the barons took an oath at the altar of St. Edmundsbury to demand from John, by force of arms if necessary, the observance of this charter and of the laws and customs of King Edward. This was in the autumn of 1214; at Christmas they marched to London, appeared in arms before the king, and preferred

their claim. The military leader of the barons was Robert Fitzwalter, "the Marshal of the Host of God and Holy Church." On the side of John stood seven knights and his hired soldiers: and over-against him a nation in arms.

A list of articles which the barons wished John to sign was sent to him at Oxford. He refused. "These articles are pure nonsense!" he cried. "Why do they not ask me for my kingdom at once?"

8. Runnymede, June 15, 1215.¹—An island in the Thames, between Staines and Windsor, was appointed as the meeting-place, as John was at the time residing in Windsor Castle. The discussion of the *Great Charter* was an empty form, devised to cover the fact of force being applied to the king. The articles of the Charter were discussed, passed, and signed all in one day. Articles 39 and 40 were of special importance. "No freeman," says the first of these, "shall be arrested, or imprisoned, or dispossessed of his tenement, or outlawed, or exiled, or in any wise proceeded against; we will not put or cause to be put hands upon him, except by the legal *judgment of his peers*, or by the *law of the land*." And the 40th runs thus: "To no man will we sell, to no man will we deny or delay, right or justice." And this Great Charter² forms the corner-stone of the solid edifice of English liberty and rights. Five-
The Great
Charter
1215.
and-twenty barons, among whom was the Mayor of London, were appointed a committee to enforce the observance of the Charter; and for this purpose they were empowered to hold the Tower and City of London. The oppressions of John had turned the barons from Normans into genuine Englishmen, from local robbers into law-abiding citizens; the demand and pressure of the barons had turned John from a rampant foreign despot into an English constitutional king.

(i) The King encamped on one side of the river; the barons, on the flat meadow of Runnymede, on the other side.

(ii) The *Great Charter* contained articles (63) relating to all the interests and conditions of life in England.

1. THE CHURCH: To enjoy all her whole rights and liberties, especially her freedom of election to sees, abbacies, etc.

¹ On a date very similar to this, June 18, 1815, Wellington met the forces of Napoleon at Waterloo, and broke that form of European tyranny.

² The original charter, with John's seal affixed, may still be seen at the British Museum.

2. **FEUDALISM**: Under this head the most important article was: No scutage or aid to be imposed on knights or barons unless by the **Great Council**—*except* the usual three: (i) to ransom the king's body; (ii) for the knighting of an eldest son; (iii) for the first marriage of an eldest daughter.

3. **JUSTICE**: (a) The **Court of Common Pleas** to remain fixed at Westminster, and not to follow the *Curia Regis* about the country.

Suitors, defenders, counsel and witnesses had often to travel from one end of the kingdom to the other to appear before this Court.

(b) **No free man** to be imprisoned, punished, or outlawed, except by the judgment of his equals, or by the law of the land. Justice not to be denied, delayed, or sold.

4. **TRADE**: (a) The **City of London** to have all its ancient rights, liberties, and customs, by land as by water. And so with all other towns and boroughs.

(b) One measure, one weight, one standard for the whole kingdom.

(c) All goods seized by the King's Purveyors to be paid for at the ordinary market price.

(d) Merchants to be allowed to come and go in and out of the kingdom freely.

(iii) **Magna Charta** may be regarded as a great Treaty or Contract between the King and the English People. For the *first* time the main articles of the Constitution were put down in black and white; and the respective duties and rights towards each other of king and people were clearly stated.

(iv) The signing of the Great Charter and the Revolution of 1688 are regarded as the two most important events in our history. "Here commences," says Macaulay, "the history of the English nation."

(v) The Great Charter was "confirmed" thirty-eight times by different kings—the last being Henry vi. It was not always kept.

(vi) "Magna Charta was a treaty of peace between the king and his people, and so is a complete national act. It is the first act of the kind, for it differs from the charters issued by Henry i., Stephen, and Henry ii. not only in its greater fulness and perspicuity, but by having a distinct machinery provided to carry it out. Twenty-five barons were nominated to compel the king to fulfil his part."—STUBBS.

(vii) **Runnymede** has been called the "Holy Land of English Liberty."

(viii) **Magna Charta**, which was written in Latin, is preserved in the British Museum.

9. **War with the Barons**.—John signed and sealed the Charter with a courteous and cheerful air, and then rode slowly back up the hill into his splendid castle of Windsor. When he entered his room, the Angevin passion broke loose—the storm of pent-up rage poured

forth—such rage and such passion as at times shook the heart and nerves of his father Henry. “They have given me five-and-twenty over-kings,”¹ he shrieked, and flung himself on the floor, tearing his beard, rending his clothes, and gnawing sticks and straw in the impotence of his passion. John never meant for a moment to keep the Charter. Before autumn was over he had collected a large army of foreign mercenaries; and with them he marched right through his kingdom up to Berwick. The atrocities of his foreign troops were unspeakable; they slaughtered women and children, and left behind their march only a desert. His aim was to strike a blow at the ally of the northern barons, Alexander II., king of Scots. Every morning he set fire with his own hands to the house in which he had slept over-night. Philip now saw his opportunity, and, at the request of the barons, sent his son Louis to seize England. The barons willingly flocked to Louis’s banner; but they were unable to take Dover Castle, “the lock and key of England.” The barons, moreover, became disgusted when Louis handed over to some one of his own followers every castle and fief he took; and they began to fall away. In one of his campaigns against his barons, John tried to cross the Wash with his army; but the quick-rising tide swept away all his baggage and the royal treasure.

(i) Pope Innocent III. took John’s side in his differences with the barons. He absolved John from his oath; he threatened to excommunicate the barons for making war upon a Crusader; and he suspended Langton from the exercise of the functions of his office.

(ii) Louis of France had married Blanche of Castile, the grand-daughter of Henry II.

10. The Death of John.—Vexation at this loss, added to a surfeit of peaches and new cider, brought on a fever; and he died in the castle of Newark, October 19th, 1216. By his own desire he was buried in the cathedral at Worcester.—He was one of the worst men that ever lived. In outward manners, he was lively, courteous, and good-humoured; in heart and soul, he was faithless, cruel, and selfish. He was utterly indifferent to the happiness or the misery of his subjects. His inner spirit seems to have been absolutely evil; for it was absolutely selfish. His word was as good as his bond; for he cared for neither. He was cruel,—and cruel with

Death of
John
1216.

¹ With this compare James I.’s exclamation when a Puritan deputation was announced, “Set twal chairs for twal kings!”

all the intensity of **fear**. He starved and hanged young boys and girls ; he crushed old men to death under copes of lead. He was at once irreligious and superstitious ; he blasphemed the services of the Church ; but he never started on an expedition without hanging bunches of relics round his neck. He had great military ability, but no statesmanship ; for he had no desire for the good of his kingdom. "He was an able man," says a historian, "but incapable of using his abilities except for his own destruction ; a crafty man without sagacity ; a suspicious man without insight ; a learned man without wisdom ; a rash man without courage ; an obstinate man without firmness ; a social man without sympathy ; and an evil man without shame."

"History has set upon his character a darker and deeper mark than she has set on any other king. He was in every way the worst of the whole list : the most vicious, the most profane, the most tyrannical, the most false, the most short-sighted, the most unscrupulous."—**STUBBS**.

11. The Results of John's Reign.—The reign of John is a turning-point in the history of this country ; it marks the beginning of a new era ; and its results were rich in benefits for the constitution and for the people of England. The loss of Normandy gave England to itself, ensured the free development of English life without foreign influence or interference, and hastened the absorption of the Norman element into the English people. Magna Charta enabled the people to limit the power of the king ; and, for the next two centuries, we find the English people leagued with the Baronage and the Church to resist any tyranny that might be exercised by the Crown. The abject surrender of John to the Pope, and the action of Pope Innocent in supporting John while he was endeavouring to break his signed promises, created in England a strong feeling of antagonism to the Papacy, and led to much of the anti-Roman legislation that was carried on from the time of Edward I. to the period of the Reformation.

(i) The loss of Normandy belongs to 1204.

(ii) The signing of the Great Charter belongs to 1215.

(iii) Thus the decade from 1205 to 1215 contains more of the germs of English freedom and English constitutional organisation than any other.

(iv) The Norman baron and the English freeman (or yeoman) had become equals in the eye of the law ; and this equality had been the work of the Crown under Henry II., Richard. and John.

12. Great Men.—The most distinguished men in the reign of John were **Hubert Walter**, **Geoffrey Fitz-Peter**, **Peter des Roches**, **Stephen Langton**, and **William the Marshal**, Earl of Pembroke. The first three filled the offices of Justiciar and of Chancellor; and, on the whole, carried out the legislation and financial policy of Henry II. But above them all towers the great figure of **Stephen Langton**, who organised and headed the powers of resistance to John, who fought steadily and persistently, in defiance of King and Pope, for the liberties and rights of the people and of the Church.

(i) **Hubert Walter** had been chaplain to Henry II.; then Bishop of Salisbury; next chaplain and counsellor to the Third Crusade; next Justiciar of England, Archbishop of Canterbury, and Papal Legate in the reign of Richard; lastly Chancellor to John from 1199 to his death in 1205.

(ii) **Geoffrey Fitz-Peter** was Justiciar from 1198 till his death in 1213. When John heard of his death, he exclaimed, "I am glad of it! Now, indeed, for the first time am I king and lord in England!" And he gave the justiciarship to his favourite **Peter des Roches**, whose nickname was "Squire Peter."

(iii) **Peter des Roches** was a Poitevin (=man of Poitou), who carried out John's wishes without regard to law or precedent.

13. Social Facts.—The powers of the boroughs and the importance of the trading classes grew greatly during the reign of John; and this growth is strongly and strikingly marked by the nomination of the Mayor of London as one of the twenty-five **Sworn Guardians** appointed to see that John kept the promises he had signed in the Great Charter. London Bridge was completed in stone in the year 1209; and, for the first time, chimneys made their appearance in this country, and were added to many houses. The population of the whole country was at this time estimated at 2,000,000—a good deal less than half the population of London alone in the present day.

(i) Townspeople could meet and discuss the questions that interested them with perfect freedom.

(ii) The merchants had their merchant-guilds; and artisans their craft-guilds; and these bodies grew gradually very strong and protected the interests of their members. These mediæval associations were similar in character to our modern trades-unions and benefit societies. Their name still survives in *Guildhall* (in the City of London) and in the *Dean of Guild* in Scottish burghs.

14. Scotland to 1214.—**Malcolm IV.** was succeeded by his younger brother **William the Lion**. He also followed Henry II. in his French wars; and, as recompence for this and other services, he asked from

Henry the restitution of the Earldom of Northumberland. Henry promptly declined. William invaded Northumberland. The Scottish army broke up into small plundering parties ; and there was no battle. About four hundred barons and knights of Yorkshire, all clad in full armour, and mounted on strong horses, pushed northwards into Northumberland. The morning of the 13th July 1174 dawned thick with heavy mists from the sea ; and, themselves unseen by the Scottish scouts, the Yorkshire knights caught sight of the towers of Alnwick Castle, and at the same time of a party of mounted cavaliers in a meadow. One of these, on seeing the advancing body, put spurs to his horse, and galloped up to them. He was surrounded, unhorsed, and taken ; and the English barons found that they had taken prisoner the King of Scotland himself. He had been taken in open war upon English soil. He was carried off to Falaise in Normandy, accompanied by the flower of the nobility of Scotland. Here Henry II. made with him a treaty called the **Treaty of Falaise**. By this treaty, William bought his freedom by admitting the complete feudal superiority over Scotland of the English king. The homage paid was absolute ; the Prince of Scotland, William's brother, joined in it ; five Scottish castles were given up to be held by English troops ; and twenty Scottish nobles were retained as hostages by Henry. For fifteen years Scotland was a fief of the English Crown. In 1189, however, Richard Lion-Heart, wishing to join the Third Crusade, released William the Lion from his vassalage for the sum of ten thousand marks.—In the reign of King John, in 1209, William again did homage to the English king for his dominions ; but he succeeded in defeating John's intention to build a strong castle on the English side of the Tweed. William the Lion died in 1214, after a reign of forty-nine years.

(i) It was said that the capture of William the Lion was made on the very day on which Henry expiated his sins by his penance at the tomb of Thomas Becket.

(ii) The five castles given up to Henry II. were **Edinburgh, Stirling, Berwick, Jedburgh, and Roxburgh**. These castles commanded not only the richest parts of Scotland, but also the borders of the two countries.

(iii) It is worthy of note that most of the twenty Scottish nobles left as hostages had Norman names.

(iv) William the Lion founded the Abbey of Arbroath, in Forfarshire. He dedicated it to St. Thomas of England, "on account of the love that existed between himself and St. Thomas, when they were both at the Court of King Henry."

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF JOHN'S REIGN.

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p>1199. John elected king.</p> <p>1200. Twenty-five citizens chosen to assist the Mayor of London. First beginning of the City Corporation.</p> <p>1203. Disappearance of Arthur of Brittany.</p> <p>1204. Philip II. takes Normandy, Maine, etc.</p> <p>1205. Archbishop Hubert Walter dies.</p> <p>1206. Stephen Langton elected Archbishop of Canterbury.</p> <p>1208. England is placed under an Interdict.</p> <p>1209. John is excommunicated.</p> <p>1211. Submission of Llewellyn, Prince of Snowdon.</p> <p>1213. John becomes the Pope's vassal.</p> <p>1213. (a) French fleet beaten at Damme by the English. (This is the first great naval victory recorded in English annals.)</p> | <p>(b) The first representative assembly on record in England meets at St. Albans. Geoffrey Fitz-Peter promises, in the name of the king, that the laws of Henry I. shall be observed.</p> <p>(c) Langton produces, at a Great Council in St. Paul's, the charter of Henry I.</p> <p>(d) Geoffrey Fitz-Peter dies; and Peter des Roches becomes Justiciar.</p> <p>1214. (a) Battle of Bouvines.</p> <p>(b) Charter to London to elect its own Mayor, Sheriffs, and common-councilmen.</p> <p>1215. (a) The GREAT CHARTER.</p> <p>(b) John collects hired troops.</p> <p>(c) The Barons offer the crown to Louis of France.</p> <p>1216. (a) Louis lands in England.</p> <p>(b) John dies at Newark.</p> |
|---|---|

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>1204. Constantinople taken by the Crusaders (Fourth).</p> <p>1212. The Boy Crusade.</p> | <p>1214. William the Lion of Scotland dies. Alexander II. succeeds.</p> <p>1216. Fifth Crusade.</p> |
|--|---|

CHAPTER IV.

HENRY THE THIRD

(OF WINCHESTER)

Born 1207. Succeeded (at the age of 9) in 1216. Died 1272.

Reigned 56 years.

HENRY III., or Henry of Winchester, was born at Winchester in 1207. He was the eldest son of John and Isabella of Angoulême. In 1236 he married Eleanor of Provence. His children were Edward I.; Edmund, Earl of Lancaster, who was offered the crown of Sicily by the Pope; Margaret, who married Alexander III. of Scotland, etc. etc.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

SCOTLAND : ALEXANDER II.	FRANCE : LOUIS VIII.	POPES : HONORIUS III.
ALEXANDER III.	LOUIS IX. (St. Louis).	GREGORY IX. etc. etc.
	PHILIP III.	GREGORY X.

1. **The Periods of this Reign.**—The reign of HENRY III. falls easily into four periods. The first is the period of the **Regency**, which ends with the disgrace and fall of the patriotic Hubert de Burgh. The second is the period of **misgovernment** by foreign favourites, which led to the meeting of the “Mad Parliament.” The third period is filled by the **Great Barons’ War** against the king, which ends with the death of the great Earl of Leicester; and the fourth is the short period of **peace** and comparative prosperity which lies between the close of the Barons’ War and the death of Henry III.

2. **Henry III., 1216-1272.**—GUALO, the Pope’s legate, with three bishops and four barons, crowned Prince Henry, the eldest son of John, with a plain circlet of gold at Gloucester, on the 28th of October 1216. Henry was only nine years old; and William the

Marshal, Earl of Pembroke, a wise and good man who had been the friend of Henry's father and grandfather, was made *Warden of the King and Kingdom*. Hubert de Burgh was Justiciar. Louis kept up the struggle for a year, but two battles—one by land and one at sea—quickly put an end to all his hopes of making England an appanage of the French Crown. The French Count de la Perche was besieging the castle of Lincoln in May 1217, and the Earl of Pembroke caught his soldiers in the narrow streets of the town, and with his knights and bowmen made a terrific slaughter. So little loss was there on the English side, so easy the victory, and so great the spoil, that the battle went by the jocular name of the "**Fair of Lincoln**."—The fight at sea was a more serious business. Louis had sent for succours from France, and a strong fleet of eighty sail, commanded by Eustace the Monk, a desperate pirate of the time, crossed the Strait of Dover. Hubert de Burgh, who held Dover Castle, collected with difficulty a fleet of forty sail, and put out to meet Eustace. A desperate battle was fought. The English managed to get to windward of the French ships, threw quicklime in the eyes of the crews, followed this up with showers of arrows, then pushed with the iron beaks of their galleys, boarded the enemy's ships, cut the rigging, and succeeded in gaining a complete victory for their brave leader De Burgh. Louis, who still held London, was very glad to make his way home after this news, while Alexander, king of Scots, and the prince of North Wales, Prince Llewellyn, gave in their adhesion to the young prince.

The crown of England had been lost in the Wash.

(i) Before Hubert went on board, he said to the officer he had left in charge of Dover Castle: "If I be taken, I beseech you, in God's name, to let them hang me before your eyes rather than give up this key of England to any Frenchman born!"

(ii) The arrangement under which Louis agreed to go was called the **Peace of Lambeth**. After it, there was no civil war in England for many years.

(iii) **Henry III.** was crowned a second time at Westminster, in 1220, by Archbishop Stephen Langton; and all the ceremonies which had been omitted at the hurried coronation at Gloucester were then fully and carefully gone through.

3. Hubert de Burgh.—After the death of William Marshal, the great Earl of Pembroke, in 1219, the government of the country was taken up by Hubert de Burgh, Peter des Roches, and Pandulf, the Papal Legate. The chief object of Hubert was to restore the reign of

law and order, to bring back to the kingdom security for life, property, and labour, and to put an end to the disorders which had sprung up in England during the struggle of the barons with King John. In 1227 the king came of age, dismissed Bishop Peter from his office of Guardian, and gave all his confidence to Hubert, whom he created Earl of Kent. Peter went on crusade for five years; and, on his return, set about to sow suspicion in the mind of the king, who was indeed by nature too easily suspicious. He succeeded in persuading Henry that his Justiciar had been robbing him. The weak young king was furious. He stripped his old and faithful counsellor of all his wealth and offices. Hubert took sanctuary in a church. The king sent one of his officers to drag him out. The officer sent for a smith to rivet fetters on him. The smith refused. He threw down his tools and exclaimed: "Do what you will with me; but, as God liveth, I will die any death before I fasten iron on the man who freed England from the alien and saved Dover, the key of this kingdom, from the host of France!" Hubert was at length set free by the king; but he never ruled the country again. He was the last of the great Justiciars of England who had been trained in the policy of Henry II. and who had acted as prime ministers and chief advisers to the kings of this country.

(i) From the fall of Hubert, the **Chancellor**, not the Justiciar, becomes the most important of the king's advisers.

(ii) "Under Hubert, England passed from civil war to comparative order; under every other minister of that reign, from comparative order to civil war or its beginnings."—PEARSON.

4. Poitevins, Provençals, and Half-brothers.—Twenty-six years of bad government followed the dismissal of Hubert. Henry was a weak young man, without much will or clear insight of his own, and always too ready to be led by others or yield to circumstances. He was himself ruled by his wife, his mother, and his courtiers, and these persons did not think very much about the good of the realm. He married, at the age of twenty-nine, **Eleanor**, the daughter of Count Raymond of Provence.—When the Earl of Pembroke died in 1219, the country was placed under the management of Hubert de Burgh and Peter des Roches, the bishop of Winchester. Peter, himself a Poitevin, bestowed all the offices and dignities he could upon Poit-

evins; Eleanor made interest for Provençals; and Henry himself always preferred Frenchmen and foreigners to Englishmen. Henry's mother, Isabella, who had married Hugh de la Marche, had a numerous family of sons; and these half-brothers of the king came over to push their fortunes in England, and take all they could get. Thus everywhere foreigners crowded the natives out of office and power. These favourites were insolent and haughty in the highest degree; and to every complaint their reply was, "What have we to do with the law of your land? It was made for English boors."

(i) The **Poitevins** were dismissed on the representation of the barons, headed by Edmund Rich, Archbishop of Canterbury; and Peter des Roches fell with them.

(ii) The chief **Provençals** were the uncles of the Queen—William of Valence, Boniface of Savoy, and Peter of Savoy. To the last was given a piece of land between the Strand and the Thames, which is called **The Savoy** to this day. The king married many of the poor Provençals to rich English heirs and heiresses.

"The Queen's relations poured into the country as into a newly discovered gold-field; dignities, territories, high offices in Church and State were lavished upon them; and the rumour went abroad that they were attempting to change the constitution of the kingdom."—**STRUBBS**.

(iii) Count **Peter of Savoy** "brought over a train of young ladies from Savoy to be provided with husbands; and three English earls were married without the power of choice, being royal wards, to foreigners."

5. The King's Faults.—The king's greatest faults were the seemingly inconsistent vices of greed and prodigality. He was always seeking for money, and always giving it away. When his first son Edward was born, he sent messages to all the great nobles that large presents were expected. "Heaven gave us this child," said a Norman, "but the king sells him to us." London and other large towns had heavy taxes laid upon them, for every reason and for no reason. But the weaknesses of kings often make the strength of kingdoms. This fondness of Henry for money made his subjects more and more disinclined to give it, until at last it became clearly settled and fully understood in England, that the power of the purse belonged, not to the king, but to the whole nation.

(i) In 1257, the king presented his second son Edmund to the barons as King of Sicily, and informed them that he had pledged his kingdom of England to the Pope for 140,000 marks. This, as much as any of the other misdoings of the king, led to the institution and laid the foundation of the power of **Parliament**. For the barons saw two things very clearly: (a) that the king must have proper advisers or ministers; and (b) that these ministers must be directly responsible to the nation.

(ii) For twenty-four years (1234-58) the post of **Justiciar** was left vacant; and for seventeen years (1244-61) the post of **Chancellor**. The work of these two offices, the highest under the Crown, was done by clerks appointed temporarily by the king.

6. An Archbishop.—One of his greedy favourites was his wife's uncle, Boniface of Savoy. Him he made Archbishop of Canterbury after the death of Edmund Rich. Boniface was an entirely ignorant person—a burly knight—a fierce soldier—a young man who had learned nothing but war. One day he entered London, and though the city monasteries were not under his care, he forced his way into St. Bartholomew's; and when the Prior mildly and courteously declined to acknowledge his jurisdiction, he struck him in the face with his "archiepiscopal fist," knocked him down, and kicked and trampled upon him. A riot followed; and the citizens of London, rising in their rage, drove Boniface and his guards out of the gates. Another set of favourites tried to engage Henry in a number of impossible attempts to recover his French provinces, and he spent a vast amount of money in these attempts, but never to any purpose. Isabel, his mother, whom the French persisted in calling Jezebel, incited him in the same direction. This, of course, threw the king more and more into the power of his subjects.

This worthy archbishop wore a coat of mail under his robes.

7. The Pope's Legate.—Another thing that disgusted his people with the king was his connection with Cardinal Otho, the Pope's legate. King John had vowed to pay to the Pope a yearly rent or tribute of 1000 marks, but no one dared to levy it after his death. To extract money from the country, but ostensibly "to reform the state of the Church," Otho was sent; and he exacted under various pretences large sums of money from church, cathedral, abbey, and monastery. Henry confirmed Magna Charta and swore to observe it no fewer than ten times, only to gain supplies of money. "So help me God, these things I will faithfully observe, as I am a man, a Christian, a knight, and a crowned and anointed king!" His manhood, his Christianity, his knighthood, and his kingship, were alike inadequate to hold him to his word. Much of the gold that he extorted he gave to the legate; and he crowned all his folly by placing this messenger of the Pope on his royal throne at the feast of Christmas Day in the year 1240.

(i) The Pope tried to find in England three sources of revenue. He treated England as if it were his own private estate. He demanded from the clergy one-tenth of their annual income (tithes); the income for the first year of all benefices

("first-fruits" or "annates"); and he also demanded the right of presenting Italian priests to English livings ("provision" or "provisions").

(ii) "When Otho actually departed, escorted by the King and Court with trumpets to the coast, it was said that he had drained England of more money than he had left in it."—PEARSON.

(iii) "The Pope derived 60,000 marks a year, or as much as the whole revenue of the king himself, from the kingdom."

8. The Provisions of Oxford.—Not only did the Popes of this time maintain that kings held their realms from them, and were therefore their vassals, but they claimed a right to tax the clergy and the Church lands to whatever extent they thought proper. This claim the Archbishop of York resisted, and Pope Innocent went so far as to excommunicate him.—The Pope also offered to Edmund, the second son of Henry, the crown of Sicily, and Henry was foolish enough to accept it for him. But the kingdom of Sicily would have to be taken by force of arms, and Henry pledged England to repay the cost. The barons were enraged at this weakness, and some of them refused to pay a penny. "I will send threshers and thresh your corn for you," said Henry to Bigod, Earl of Norfolk. "And I will send you back the heads of your threshers," was the reply. At last the barons forced Henry to agree to the formation of a kind of committee of twenty-four persons, who should administer the government. It was very well to make the king swear to observe Magna Charta, but the difficulty was to get its articles and promises carried out. The barons accordingly repaired in arms to a Great Council (the "Mad Parliament"), called together at Oxford in July 1258, and there certain agreements were come to which are known in history by the name of the **Provisions of Oxford**. The justiciar of England, the chancellor of the realm, and the guardians of the king's castles, swore to do nothing without the permission or assent of this Royal Council. It is worthy of note that the *proclamation* regarding these provisions was issued in Latin, French, and English. It was the first proclamation in the English tongue since the Norman invasion; all others had been in Norman-French or in Latin. This Council, in fact, now held the royal power. But they quarrelled among themselves, and Henry intrigued with some of them to get back his authority.

The Pro-
visions of
Oxford
1258.

(i) The word **Parliament** was first used in 1246, as the name for the Common Council or Great Council of the Kingdom.

(ii) The **Provisions of Oxford** were so called because they were drawn up by the Parliament ("the Mad Parliament") which met at Oxford in 1258.

They were as follows :—

- (a) A Temporary Committee of Twenty-four to reform grievances.
- (b) A Permanent Council of Fifteen to advise the king.
- (c) The Fifteen to hold three annual Parliaments (in February, June, and October); and to consult with a body of Twelve who represented the barons.
- (d) Another body of Twenty-four to regulate taxation.

(iii) "The chiefs of this permanent council were the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Bishop of Worcester, and the Earls of Gloucester and Leicester."—**Stubbs**. Hugh Bigod was appointed justiciar.

(iv) "Three lines of mischief combine to produce the great crisis of 1258." The three lines were : (a) Heavy taxation and attempt to rule by foreign favourites, and mere clerks instead of Ministers of State; (b) the heavy demands of the Pope for money; (c) the wars in France and the difficulties in Gascony.

9. Simon de Montfort.—The head of the barons' party, and the most remarkable man in England during this reign, was **Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester**. He was a Frenchman, who had married the king's sister Eleanor, and was at first greatly beloved by the king. But he gradually became in mind and feelings a thorough Englishman, and was long the idol of the English people, who were wont to call him "Sir Simon the Righteous." The inhabitants of the cities and great towns were on the side of De Montfort, and the Londoners soon gave a practical proof of this fact. When war broke out, the Queen, who was residing in the Tower, wished to sail up the Thames to Windsor Castle; but the citizens of London pelted her and hooted her as a witch, threw volleys of filth into the royal barge, tried to sink it with large stones, and would not permit her barge to pass London Bridge.

"Simon de Montfort was a great and good man. He stands out best and most grandly in comparison with the meanness with which he was surrounded—the paltry, faithless king, the selfish and unscrupulous baronage."—**Stubbs**.

10. The Battle of Lewes.—The Londoners also sent a strong body of their best men to support De Montfort, who came up with the king at Lewes¹ on the 14th of May 1264. The armies were unequally matched, for the king had many foreign crossbow-men and

¹ The county town of Sussex.

hardened veteran soldiers, while on the other side were new recruits and raw levies. Leicester's men wore white crosses on back and breast, and following the example of their leader, who was a deeply religious man, they knelt in prayer while the royal forces advanced. The impetuosity of Prince Edward (afterwards Edward I.) gave the battle into the hands of De Montfort. The Prince, eager to avenge the foul insults shown to his mother, hurried on his men to attack the Londoners with fiery vigour, and in a few minutes he sent them flying in utter rout. For four miles he chased them in his rage, cutting, hewing, slaughtering—and sparing none, until he had put to death 3000 men. He returned, but the battle was lost; and it was lost through his reckless activity. He cut his way into the priory of Lewes, only to find himself and his father prisoners. This victory placed Earl Simon at the head of the State. He released the person of Henry, but kept Prince Edward, and Richard, Earl of Cornwall ("King of the Romans"), Henry's brother, close prisoners—the one in the Tower, and the other at Dover. The Pope's legate threatened the barons with excommunication, but the men of Dover kept a constant outlook for the arrival of the Pope's Bull, and when it landed they threw it into the sea.

Battle of
Lewes
1264.

(i) Next day the two sides met in peaceful council and determined on an arbitration, which was called the *Mise of Lewes*. The king gave himself and his son into the hands of Earl Simon, who from that time ruled in the king's name.

Mise is a French word which means pact, settlement, or arbitration.

(ii) The *Mise of Lewes* contained seven articles, the most important of which was that the king was to take the advice of English, and not of foreign, counsellors

11. The Parliament.—This reign is further remarkable for the appearance of a new power in the country—name and thing. The creator of this new power was Simon de Montfort. The National Council before his time consisted only of nobles and bishops, who held land direct from the king, and were called together by him to give money and advice. But Simon resolved to summon to the council of the nation men from the counties and from the boroughs also. He accordingly called upon the smaller crown-tenants and franklins (or freeholders) in each county to elect two of their number to represent them; and these representatives were called **Knights of**

the Shire. But he went a step further. He made each city, cinqueport, and large town send up two burgesses to London ; and these two sets of representatives formed the beginnings of our **House of Commons.**

First But at first they all met in one chamber, though the **Parliament** "Commons" occupied inferior seats ; and it is probable **1265.** that they did not vote together. On the 28th of January 1265, there met at Westminster, on the summons of Simon, twenty-three peers, eleven bishops, one hundred and five abbots and other clerics, with two knights from each shire and two citizens from each important town ; and it is from this time that we date our present constitution of Sovereign, Lords, and Commons.

(i) To this Parliament of 1265 were summoned two knights from each county, and, *for the first time*, representatives from the cities and boroughs. Thus the city communities or *commons* had members of their own. This proves that commerce and industries were growing in importance. Two knights had been summoned from each shire in 1254.

(ii) With this Parliament the English Constitution assumes, in all essential features, the shape it has to-day.

(iii) The Parliament of 1265 can scarcely be called a *free* parliament, for only those were invited who were known to be on the side of the barons.

(iv) "The Parliament of 1265 forms a landmark in English history. It was not made a precedent ; and in fact it is not till thirty years after that the representatives of the towns begin to sit regularly in Parliament."—STUBBS.

12. The Battle of Evesham.—But, just at its highest pitch and culmination, the power of Earl Simon was very near its fall. The nation in general disliked the restraint which was put upon their king and their prince, Henry and Edward ; and Simon's sons gave great offence by their haughtiness of manners and tyrannical conduct. The Earl of Gloucester, too, a powerful baron, who was jealous of Simon's exalted position, quarrelled with him and joined the party of the Royalists. Edward managed to escape from custody, took the town of Gloucester, surprised the younger Simon at Kenilworth, and cut his whole force to pieces. He then pushed on against the elder Simon, whom he met at **Evesham** on the 4th of August **1265.** The Earl was surprised by a new device ; Edward displayed in his van the banners he had taken at Kenilworth, and his forces were mistaken for friends. Upon discovering

**Battle of
Evesham
1265.**

his error, "Let us commend our souls to God," he cried, "for our bodies are the foe's." Most of his troops were new levies—raw Welshmen, without training, without armour, and with only billhooks and scythes for arms. They were soon broken and pursued, trodden down and slaughtered like sheep, and killed in twos and threes behind the shocks of wheat and in the gardens, where they had taken refuge. Earl Simon, his son, Hugh Despenser, and a few others, kept close together in one compact band; but one by one they fell, till only the Earl himself was left alive. He was summoned to surrender, but refused; a blow from behind felled him to the ground, and the great statesman and patriot died with the cry upon his lips, "It is the grace of God!" The bodies of the Earl and his son were brutally mutilated; but the pious monks of Evesham buried their remains, and the "good Sir Simon" was spoken of for many years in accents of kindness and respect, and was long held in honour as a martyr. The patriotic party was thoroughly broken, and the league was at an end. The last to yield was **Llewellyn**, who was afterwards decorated with the title of *Prince of Wales*. (Before this, he had merely been spoken of by the English as *Lord of Snowdon*.) The City of London was condemned, for having supported the cause of the great Earl, to pay £230,000—a sum which was then equal¹ to more than two millions at the present time.

Death of
Montfort
1265.

(i) The remnant of the barons held out at Kenilworth, but at length came to an agreement. This agreement was called the *Dictum de Kenilworth*. It restored his power to the king; and allowed those barons who had incurred the penalty of the forfeiture of their estates to get back their lands by the payment of a fine.

(ii) The City of London was excluded from the benefits of the Kenilworth agreement. It was deprived of its charter; the Mayor and his friends were compelled to ransom themselves; and no man in the City was allowed to own a war-horse.

(iii) Earl Simon was a great and good man. His friends used to praise his simple fare and plain russet dress, his love of good men, his scorn for deceit, and his unbroken respect for his word.

(iv) His apparently unsuccessful rebellion led to three good results: (a) There were no more foreign favourites; (b) The interference of the Pope as Overlord was put an end to; and (c) a Parliament representing the whole nation, and holding the king's ministers responsible, was founded.

13. The Death of Henry.—In the year 1268, the country had quieted down, and the two young princes, Edward and Edmund, joined

¹ That is equal in *purchasing power*. It would "go as far."

the Seventh or Last Crusade. St. Louis (or Louis IX.) of France was the chief promoter of this new religious campaign ; but he died of the plague at Carthage, and never reached the Holy Land. While his sons were absent on this expedition, Henry III. died on the 16th of November 1272. He was buried in Westminster Abbey, which he was at the time engaged in rebuilding. The Earl of Gloucester, one of the strong supporters of the Crown, laid his hand upon the body before it was lowered into the vault, and swore fealty, in the name of the barons and people of England, to the absent Prince Edward ; and four days after Edward was proclaimed king.—“Beggard king” was the name given by one of the monkish writers to Henry III. ; and there was certainly great truth in the epithet. The weakness of his character made it clear that England must rely, for the management of its affairs, on the best advice it could get from the nobles and citizens of the land, and not on the mind and feelings of one man.—Henry had reigned for the long period of fifty-six years.

(i) “Henry III. would, as a private gentleman, have lived without infamy and without praise.”—PEARSON. Hallam thinks the epithet *worthless* the most appropriate to Henry III.

(ii) “His life was mean in the midst of its magnificence ; it was wanting in the one element that leads men to respect, even when they fear and blame, the character of reality or ‘veracity to a man’s self.’ There was no purpose, as there was no faith in it.”—STUBBS.

14. Great Men.—The most distinguished men in the early part of Henry III.’s reign were **Stephen Langton**, **Hubert de Burgh**, **William the Marshal**, Earl of Pembroke, and **Peter des Roches**. In the latter part of the reign the most prominent persons are **Simon de Montfort**, **Robert Grosseteste**, and **Gilbert, Earl of Gloucester**. Of all these, Hubert de Burgh was the most patriotic and diligent servant of his country. The Earl of Pembroke, or—as he was generally called—the Earl Marshal, was always a faithful adviser of the king ; while it is to the courage, uprightness, and clear insight of Earl Simon that we owe the best part of our parliamentary institutions.

(i) “The expulsion of the French, the restoration of order, and the securing of the validity of the Great Charter, were the chief debt that England owed to William Marshall.”—STUBBS.

(ii) **Robert Grosseteste**, “the great divine, scholar, and pastor,” was Bishop of Lincoln, and one of the chief Englishmen who opposed the filling of the offices of the Church with foreigners. He had been tutor to the children of De Montfort.

(iii) The Earl of Gloucester was leader of the barons along with Earl Simon ; and it was these two nobles who summoned the Parliament of 1265. But a quarrel broke out between them ; and they separated.

15. Social Facts.—Even as early as the beginning of this century, the monasteries of the English Church had been tried and found wanting. The pauper, the leper, and the fugitive slave were crowding into the growing cities, and “multiplying with terrible rapidity.” In this crisis of English civilisation, the Mendicant Friars arose to meet the new difficulties by new measures. They invaded every parish in England “where there was work neglected or work to be done ;” and their success was greatest among merchants, thinkers, and the inhabitants of towns.—Manufactures took a new departure. The Flemings brought in the manufacture of linen from Flanders ; the people of Newcastle received from the king a licence to dig for coal ; and many improvements in the arts of living were introduced. Merchants from Lombardy settled in London, engaged in the business of banking, and laid the foundation of the fame of the banking community which is called **Lombard Street** to this day.

(i) The most important order of Begging Friars was the **Franciscans** or **Grey Friars**. They were founded by St. Francis of Assisi (in Italy) in 1210. The others were the **Dominicans** or **Black Friars** ; the **Carmelites** or **White Friars**, and the **Hermit Brothers**, or **Augustinians** or **Austin Friars**. Monks were quite independent of Episcopal control,—that is, of the bishop of the diocese in which they laboured.

(ii) “There are few grander pages in history than the record of the privations and sufferings by which the Franciscans triumphed over public opinion in England. Taking no thought for the morrow, living on meagre pittance often of the most repulsive food, huddled together that they might fight through the bitter winters by animal warmth, walking barefoot through deep snow, tried by all the diseases which austerities can induce in weak frames, disliked, envied, and annoyed by the established orders, sustained through every difficulty by the faith whose inner life is the miraculous, these men retrieved two generations to the Church and renewed decaying learning.”—PEARSON.

(iii) **Roger Bacon** (d. 1294) was a Franciscan monk. He made many discoveries in science, and is said to have invented gunpowder, magnifying-glasses, etc.

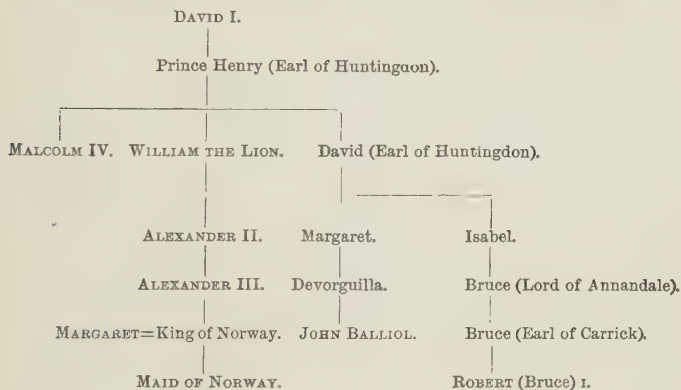
(iv) In this reign candles were used instead of slips of wood ; tiles took the place of thatch ; leaden water-pipes came into use. Westminster Abbey was rebuilt.

(v) “England looks on the thirteenth century as her great architectural age, the age of her great lawyers and some of her greatest divines.”—STUBBS.

16. Scotland to 1249.—William the Lion was succeeded by his son **Alexander II.**, a boy of sixteen, in 1214. In the constitutional struggle

between the English barons and King John, Alexander had taken the side of the barons, who promised him, in exchange for his support, the annexation of Cumberland and Northumberland to the Scottish kingdom. When Henry III. succeeded to the throne of England, he naturally demurred to this grant; but at length agreed to give the Scottish king certain manors in these two counties, to be held "not in sovereignty, but in feudal property." The Cumberland estates—Penrith, Scotby, and others—were to be held on condition of the King of Scots delivering every year a falcon at the gate of Carlisle Castle.—In the year 1221, Alexander II. married Joan (or Jane), the eldest daughter of King John, and sister of Henry III. There were about this time in Scotland two sources of discontent. One was that there was no heir to the Scottish crown; the other, that there was no fixed boundary between Scotland and England, and no settled peace on any of its borders. To remedy the first, **Robert Bruce**, Lord of Annandale, and grandson of Prince David (Earl of Huntingdon), the younger brother of William the Lion, was chosen heir to the crown of Scotland. The second kept the Scottish kings in a state of perpetual anxiety and possible warfare. In 1242, a quarrel between the followers of Bysset, a Norman chief, and the retainers of the Lord of Athole led to the interference of Henry III. of England. The head of the Byssets found refuge at the court of Henry, and appealed to him as lord-paramount of Scotland. An English force was marched to the border; a Scottish force of about one hundred thousand men crossed into England. But "there was no fighting;" and the **Treaty of Newcastle** patched up all differences. Alexander II. died of fever in the year 1249, "in the small barren island of Kerrera, which fronts the beautiful Bay of Oban," in Argyllshire. He was then on an expedition against the Norse Lord of Argyll and the Isles.

PEDIGREE OF THE BALLIOLS AND BRUCES.



(i) To the outlying provinces of Scotland the Scottish kings had titles which they were not strong enough to make permanently effective. North of the Tay they had very little power; and the representative of the old Mormaors of Ross was strong enough to make war on Alexander.—In the West Highlands, the Norsemen were stronger than he.—In the south, in Galloway, the ruling family sought an alliance with England. But Alan of Galloway was made Lord High Constable of Scotland; and this had the result of averting petty war.

(ii) Bysset was a Norman chief who held broad lands round Loch Ness. In a tournament at Haddington, one of the Byssets was unhorsed by the young Lord of Athole. Athole was slain by a follower of the Bysset family, and his house burned. The estates of the Byssets were forfeited; and the head of the house fled to the English Court.

(iii) By the Treaty of Newcastle, the son and heir of Alexander II. was to marry Margaret, daughter of Henry III. of England.

(iv) The Lord of the Isles formed an alliance with the King of Norway

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF HENRY III.'s REIGN.

- | | |
|--|--|
| <p>1216. (a) Henry III. is crowned.
 (b) He does homage to the Pope's Legate.</p> <p>1217. (a) Fair of Lincoln.
 (b) Hubert de Burgh defeats the French fleet off Dover.
 (c) Treaty of Lambeth is signed, and Louis leaves England.</p> <p>1219. (a) The Earl Marshal dies.
 (b) Peter des Roches, Pandulf and Hubert become the king's guardians.</p> <p>1227. (a) Henry declares himself of age.
 (b) Continues Hubert as Justiciar.</p> <p>1229. Archbishop Stephen Langton dies.</p> <p>1232. (a) Fall of Hubert de Burgh. (Beginning of 26 years of bad government.)¹
 (b) Peter des Roches gives offices to Poitevins.</p> <p>1236. (a) Henry marries Eleanor of Provence.
 (b) The Provençals are loaded with offices and favours.</p> <p>1238. Henry marries his sister Eleanor to Simon de Montfort.</p> | <p>1244. Meeting of Earls, Barons, and Bishops, who demand control over the appointment of ministers. Are refused.</p> <p>1254. Two knights of the Shire are summoned to Parliament by royal writ for the first time.</p> <p>1255. Parliament again demands control over the appointment of ministers. Is refused a second time.</p> <p>1258. (a) The Mad Parliament at Oxford.
 (b) The Provisions of Oxford.</p> <p>1264. The Mise of Amiens.²</p> <p>1265. (a) First Parliament containing two knights from each shire, and also deputies from cities and boroughs.
 (b) Quarrel between De Montfort and Gloucester.
 (c) Battle of Evesham.</p> <p>1266. Dietum de Kenilworth restores power to the king.</p> <p>1268. Prince Edward goes on Seventh Crusade.</p> <p>1272. Death of Henry III.</p> |
|--|--|

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p>1216-23. Fifth Crusade.
 1233. Inquisition established by Gregory IX.</p> <p>1247. Hansa League formed.</p> <p>1248-54. Sixth Crusade.</p> <p>1249. Alexander II. of Scotland dies. Is succeeded by Alexander III.</p> | <p>1251. Alexander III. marries Margaret, daughter of Henry III.</p> <p>1270. (a) Seventh Crusade.
 (b) Louis IX. (St. Louis) of France dies. Is succeeded by Philip the Third.</p> |
|---|---|

¹ "The period of Henry's personal administration is one long series of impolitic and unprincipled acts."—STUBBS.

² The disputes between Henry and the Barons were laid before Louis IX. (St. Louis) of France. His decision, given at Amiens, freed Henry from the Provisions of Oxford.

ENGLAND UNDER ANGEVIN RULE, 1154-1272.

1. Political.—The strong reign of law begun and built up by Henry II. did not discourage but rather tended to strengthen free local government. The loss of Normandy in the time of John compelled even the Normans to feel that they were Englishmen; and the patriotic action of Earl Simon, in his endeavours to give England a true parliamentary representation, helped to weld the different parts of the country into one, and to make it feel and think of itself as a whole. The struggle of Parliament against the king on the question as to who should have the power of appointing the Ministers of the Crown, went on for a long time; and, in the end, the king succeeded in retaining the power of appointing them. But Parliament succeeded in making these Ministers accountable to the nation; and thus the real political power began to settle in the hands of the Parliament.

2. The Church.—The Church grew in power and wealth during this period. The noble stand made by such men as Archbishop Stephen Langton, for the liberties of the realm, and by such men as Bishop Hugh of Lincoln, for the rights of the Church, strengthened the Church of England in the respect both of high and low. The coming of the friars proved to be the greatest possible benefit to the poor of the country. They more than made up for the laziness and self-indulgence of the monk and the parish priest, and brought help and consolation to the starving, the rich, and the dying, both in villages and in cities. They incited Englishmen also to all kinds of good works—founding schools and hospitals, building churches, and freeing slaves. The friars also gave lectures at Oxford; and in time, by virtue of a Bull from the Pope, these friar-schools grew into the famous University of Oxford, which may be said to have been founded in the year 1190.

(i) "The friars were the last helpful gift of the mediæval Church to the world. Like the old monks in their self-abnegation, and in their complete renunciation of the pleasures and interests of the world, the friars introduced an entirely new element into the ecclesiastical system. The monk stood apart from humanity for his own soul's welfare, crucifying the flesh in order that the spirit might live, and teaching indirectly by example, and not, except accidentally, by direct word or guidance. The friar's work was carried on, not in retired cloisters, but in the busy haunts of men. He lived not for himself, but for others. Wherever men were most wretched, struck down by the most loathsome of diseases, or pinched and hunger-starved by famine, there the little mission chapel of the friars was raised."—GARDINER.

(ii) In King Alfred's time, the means of learning at Oxford were known as "The School" or "The Schools"; and of these the Pope's Bull made a *Studium Generale* (General Study) or *University* of Oxford. (Edward III. gave a Great Charter to the Students in 1355.)

(iii) The most celebrated man at Oxford in the thirteenth century was **Roger Bacon** (died 1294), who taught science,—especially optics, is said to have invented gunpowder, and received, for his great learning, the title of Doctor Admirabilis.

3. Towns and Commerce.—London was now by far the largest and wealthiest city in England. It had been established as the capital in 1156; and, twenty years after, London Bridge—the stone bridge which was destined to become famous both in trade and in the history of the city—was begun. Parliament or the Great Council frequently meets in London; and the growing prosperity of the city is marked by the founding of trade-guilds and craft-guilds. The great market of London—**Cheapside**—was growing to be the best attended market in the kingdom.—The other towns of England,—Winchester, Exeter, and Bristol in the west,—Canterbury, Yarmouth, and Lincoln in the east, were all prospering in their own trade.

(i) The first **London Bridge** took 33 years to build.

(ii) The word *cheap* means market, from the Saxon *ceapian*, to buy. The streets running into the **Cheap** took their names from the articles sold in them. Thus we have Bread Street (where Milton was born long after, in 1608), and, opposite it, Milk Street. The eastern end of the Cheap is still called the "Poultry."

(iii) **Winchester** had a large wine-trade; **Worcester** a large market for wheat; **Stourbridge** the largest fair in England. **Bristol** was the great seaport of the west; **Yarmouth** of the east. **York** was the capital of the North; **Norwich** the centre of the manufacture of woollens.

4. Social Conditions.—In this century, ordinary arable land was let at sixpence an acre; it was generally worth fourteen years' purchase, and might be bought at from six shillings to eight shillings per acre. If we estimate the corn and labour given by a serf to his lord, we shall find it to amount to about nine shillings a year. When a labourer was hired by the day, he received twopence a day; women got a penny, and boys a halfpenny a day. A carpenter received threepence a day; a superior carpenter in London would get as much as fivepence.—Meat sold for a farthing a pound; and a strong pair of boots could be bought for two shillings.—The houses of villagers were mean and dirty. The better class were built of timber; those of the peasants of posts plastered with clay or mud. The sleeping-rooms were under the roof, and reached by a ladder. There were no chimneys; and the smoke escaped by the door or window. Lights there were none—except the light of the fire; as candles were much too dear for ordinary use. The only articles of furniture of any value were a few copper or brass pots. The rich, on the other

hand, had numerous luxuries. The population of the country during this period seems to have reached the number of 3,000,000.

(i) A serf had "to pay a quarter of seed-wheat at Michaelmas, a peck of wheat, four bushels of oats, and three hens on November 12; and at Christmas a cock and two hens, and twopennyworth of bread. He is to plough, sow, and till half an acre of his lord's land, and give his services, as he is bidden by the bailiff, except on Sundays and feast-days. . . . He is not to marry son or daughter, to sell ox, calf, horse, or colt, to cut down oak or ash, without the lord's consent."—ROGERS.

(ii) "The Bishop of Hereford, Swinfield, has a palace at Hereford, a house in Worcester, and a house in London. He has many manor-houses, at each of which he has a farm. He has stables for many horses, kennels for his hounds, and mews for his hawks. His kitchens reek with every variety of food; his cellars are filled with wine, and his spiceries with foreign luxuries. He brews and he bakes, and he makes his own candles. He is constantly moving from manor-house to manor-house; and the domestic utensils, the brass pots, and the earthenware jugs are always moving with him. . . . At each of his manor-houses the bishop's hall is his feudal court. Here he sits in baronial state to receive the homage of tenants, to sentence ecclesiastics to penalties for offences against the canon-law, to threaten or excommunicate lay offenders against public morals. . . . The manor-house was also, for the most part, a hall. One private chamber was allotted to the lord of the house. The cook had his kitchen, a separate but adjacent building. There was the sewery; and there was the buttery. . . . But the courts were held; the audiences were given; the guests were dined; the wine was drunk; and, as night ended the solemn feast or the lenten fasting, all slept on the wooden floor of the hall, strewn with dry rushes in winter, and green fodder in summer—with hay or with straw."—KNIGHT.

Seuer means *taster*. He was the officer who arranged the feast and served up the dishes.

5. **Language.**—The intermixture of Danish and of Norman-French with pure native English had had, among other things, the effect of helping the English language to get rid of many of its inflections. This made it easier for the Norman part of the population to speak.—Three well-marked and distinct dialects of English are mentioned by contemporary writers as the most prominent of all the dialects spoken in the different parts of the kingdom. These were the **Northern**, **Midland**, and **Southern** dialects. The Northern dialect had adopted a large number of Danish words, and had, speaking generally, clung to hard sounds.

The Southern dialect had been the most conservative of the three both in its grammar and in its vocabulary. The Midland dialect had dropped most of its inflections, and had been gradually growing to be the parent of our modern English, which, in style, in grammar, and in the words it employs, is more like the Midland dialect than any other. The following is a fair specimen of thirteenth-century English:—

Hunger wex in lond Chanaan
And his x sunes Jacob for-ðan
Sente in to Egypt to bringen corne
He bilefe at hom ðe was gungeest boren.

Hunger waxed in the land (of) Canaan;
and Jacob for that (reason) sent his ten
sons into Egypt to bring corn; he re-
mained at home that was youngest born.

(i) The characteristic of the Danish words adopted in the North is their hard consonants. Thus we have *Kirk* (in Kirkby, etc.) for *church*; *bank* for *bench*, etc.

(ii) In the foregoing extract the chief grammatical peculiarity is the use of the Danish *to* as the sign of the infinitive, *along with* the Saxon *en*.

6. Literature.—The most interesting writer of this period is **Geoffrey of Monmouth** (died 1154). He wrote in Latin a “Chronicle or History of the Britons”—which consisted of a collection of all the traditions and tales he could gather about the old British (or Welsh) kings, the old British heroes and gods. Transcendent above them all stands out the heroic figure of **Arthur**—the “blameless king,” the flower of British knighthood and chivalry. Geoffrey gives the stories of a long line of imaginary kings stretching far back into antiquity until we reach Brutus, the son of Aeneas, who is said to have led a colony into Britain. This book has been for centuries a quarry for romancers and poets, and Tennyson in his “Idylls of the King” (Arthur), has made the most skilful use of it; **Wace**, a canon of Jersey, turned parts of it into French verse; and **Layamon**, a priest of Ernley-on-Severn, translated this poem into English verse, under the title of “The Brut” (= Brutus). But the most characteristic English poem of this century is the **Ormulum**, by a priest called **Orm** (or Ormin), a canon of the Order of St. Augustine. This poem was probably written about the year 1215. It is written in an English that has lost most of its inflections, and that is as easy to understand as Chaucer, who wrote about a century and a half after the time of Orm. It is further remarkable for an original style of spelling, in which no one seems to have followed the author:

piss boc iss nemnedd Ormulum
Forr þi att Orrm þitt wrohhte.

“This book is called Ormulum; because Orm wrought (=produced) it.”

Another celebrated writer in English was **Robert of Gloucester**, who wrote lives of the Saints and a History of England in verse.

(i) **Geoffrey of Monmouth** (died 1154) wrote his “History of the Britons” in Latin; and it was soon translated into French, English, and Welsh. It became the “great fountain-head of romance.” Sir Thomas Malory, in his book on Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table (“Le Morte d’Arthur”), drew largely from it; and Tennyson has drawn largely from Malory.

(ii) The peculiarity of Orm’s spelling consists in the fact that every short vowel has the consonant that follows it *doubled*. Thus he writes *pann* for *pan*; and *pane* for *pane*.

PLAN OF DATES

THIRTEENTH CENTURY

1200 John marries Isabella of Angoulême.	1201	1202	1203 Disappearance of Arthur of Brittany.	1204 Philip II. takes Normandy, Maine, etc.
--	------	------	---	--

1210 John visits Ireland.				
1211 Llewellyn, Prince of Snowdon, submits to John.	1212	1213 John becomes the Pope's vassal. French fleet beaten at Damme. First English naval victory. First representative assembly meets at St. Albans.	1221	
1214 Battle of Bouvines.	1215 THE GREAT CHARTER.	1216 Louis of France lands in England. Death of John. HENRY III.	1224	
1217 Fair of Lincoln, Hubert de Burgh defeats the French fleet.	1218	1219	1227 Henry declares himself of age. Hubert Justiciar.	

1240				
1241	1242	1243	1251	
1244 Parliament demands appointment of Ministers.	1245	1246	1254 Two Knights of the Shire summoned to Parliament for the first time.	Parliament appoints ministers.
1247	1248	1249	1257	The Magna Carta Provision.

1270				
1271	1272 Death of Henry III. EDWARD I.	1273	1281	
1274	1275 First Statute of Westminster.	1276	1284 Statute of Wales.	Second Statute of Westminster.
1277	1278 Writs of Quo Warranto. Writs enforcing the taking up of Knighthood.	1279 Statute of Mortmain.	1287	

TH CENTURY

1205	1206 Stephen Langton Arch- bishop of Canterbury.	1207	1208 England under the Pope's Interdict.	1209 John excommuni- cated.
------	--	------	--	-----------------------------------

		1230		
1223	1231	1232 Fall of Hubert de Burgh. Poitevins the favourites.	1233	
1226	1234	1235	1236 Henry marries Eleanor of Provence.	
1229 Death of Archbishop Stephen Langton.	1237	1238 Henry's sister, Eleanor, marries Simon de Mont- fort.	1239	

		1260		
1253	1261	1262	1263	
1256	1264 The Mise of Amiens.	1265 First Parliament with de- puties from cities and boroughs. Battle of Evesham.	1266 The Dictum de Kenil- worth.	
1259	1267	1268	1269	

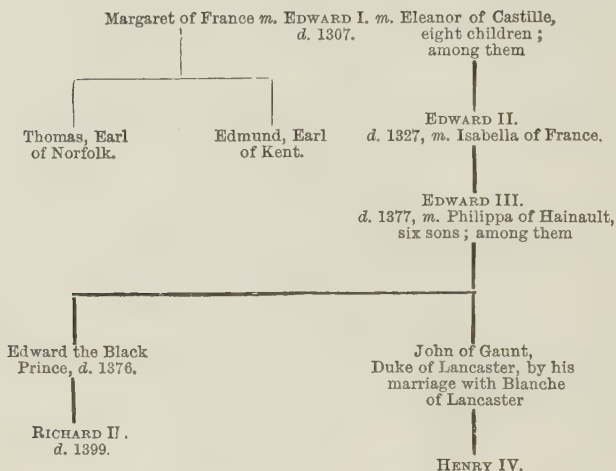
		1290 Statute of Quia Emptores. Expulsion of the Jews.		
1283	1291 Acceptance by Scottish Barons of Edward's Overlordship.	1292 Edward selects John Balliol as King of Scotland.	1293	
1286	1294	1295 "FIRST COMPLETE and MODEL PARLIAMENT."	1296	
1289	1297 CONFIRMATIO CHART- ARUM.	1298 Wallace defeated at Falkirk.	1299 Boniface VIII. claims Scotland as a Papal Fief.	

BOOK IV.

THE LATER ANGEVIN KINGS

CALLED ALSO PLANTAGENETS

THE LATER ANGEVIN KINGS FROM 1307 TO 1413.



(i) Edmund, Earl of Lancaster, was the second son of Henry III., and the younger brother of Edward I. His great-grand-daughter was Blanche, Duchess of Lancaster, who gave her fortune and title to John of Gaunt.

(ii) Richard II. had no children.

(iii) John of Gaunt was the fourth son of Edward III.

CHAPTER I.

EDWARD THE FIRST

(OF WESTMINSTER)

Born 1239. Succeeded (at the age of 33) 1272. Died 1307.

Reigned 35 Years.

EDWARD I. (called *Longshanks* from the excessive length of his legs) was born at Westminster in 1239. He was the eldest son of Henry III. of England and Eleanor of Provence. He married (1) Eleanor, daughter of Alphonso X. of Castile, in 1254, when he was only fifteen; and (2) Margaret, sister of Philip IV. of France, when he was fifty. By his first marriage he had four sons and four daughters. The youngest of the four sons was Edward II.; the others died before they could come to the throne. By his second marriage he had two sons, Thomas, Earl of Norfolk, and Edmund, Earl of Kent.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

SCOTLAND: MARGARET, 1286.

JOHN BALLIOL, 1292.

ROBERT I. 1306.

FRANCE: PHILIP III. 1270.

PHILIP IV. 1285.

1. Edward I.'s Reign.—This reign is one of the greatest and most important that England has ever seen. It was filled with great attempts and great successes. It saw Parliament used for the first time in the history of the country as an instrument of government; it saw great and enduring reforms in law and in the tenure of land; it saw the completed conquest of Wales, and the attempted conquest of Scotland. The chief purposes of Edward's reign were two: first, to make the government of the country thoroughly efficient; and, secondly, to bring under one firm rule the whole of the British Isles.

(i) The first complete and **Model Parliament** met in 1295.

(ii) The chief acts relating to the tenure of land, etc., in this reign are: The **Statute of Mortmain**; the **Statute of Winchester**; and the **Statutes of Westminster**, the **First**, the **Second**, and the **Third**.

(iii) The **Conquest of Wales** was completed in 1283.

(iv) The **Conquest of Scotland** was never completed, though that country was invaded three times during this reign.

2. Edward I., 1272-1307.—Edward was a man of thirty-three when he was proclaimed king, and thirty-five when he ascended the throne. He had shown skill, courage, and determination in the war with Simon de Montfort; and he showed the same qualities in the Crusade. When the enterprise was abandoned by the French, on the death of King Louis, he declared he would go on to the Holy Land, should only his horse-boy go with him. When a Mussulman tried to assassinate him with a poisoned dagger, he had the poisoned flesh cut out, and went on with his fighting. On his way home, he visited Gascony and suppressed a rebellion there. He was crowned with his Queen at Westminster in the year 1274. The coronation was unprecedented in splendour; bonfires blazed upon every high hill; great feasts were given; the fountains flowed with red and with white wine; and five hundred war-horses were let loose, as a gift to the populace to be the prizes of all who could catch them.

The Regents during the absence of Edward were **Walter**, Archbishop of York, **Roger**, Lord Mortimer, and **Robert Burnell**, the Chancellor of the kingdom.

3. Edward's Reforms, 1274-1290 (i).—In 1275 was passed the **First Statute of Westminster**. It fixed the proper amounts of feudal

burdens on land (aids, etc.), and declared that all elections to Parliament should be perfectly free.—In 1278 was passed the **Statute of Gloucester** to regulate the proceedings of the County and Manor Courts, and to ascertain by what warrant or title many barons held portions of the crown-lands. The writ issued to ascertain this was called **Quo Warranto**, that is, "By what Warrant" certain lands are held, etc. Its purpose was to bring as much land as possible under the Crown and under the Crown Courts and judges. The clergy were at this time the owners of more than one-fourth of the land of England; and the Church was every day and every week increasing its possessions in land. This it did in two ways: the

**First Statute
of West-
minster
1275.**

**Quo
Warranto
1278.**

clergy did what they could to persuade landowners when dying to leave their property to the Church ; and many persons, to escape from feudal obligations, would make a sham surrender of their lands to some religious body, and then receive it back upon easy terms. To meet this difficulty Edward had the **Statute of Mortmain** passed. Statute of Mortmain 1279.

(i) Elections were not to be "troubled by force, craft, or threat."

(ii) When John de Warrenne, Earl of Surrey, was asked in Court to produce his title-deeds to his land, he drew his sword—it was old and rusty—and said, "Here, sirs, is my warrant ! My ancestors came over with William the Bastard and won their lands with the sword, and with the sword I mean to keep them against all who try to seize them."—And a doggerel verse was sung by the young gentlemen of Edward's own Court :—

The King wants our gold into his hands ;
The Queen she covets our fertile lands :
And the prying writ "Quo Warranto"
Makes in this realm a vast ado !

(iii) Under this writ the Courts also inquired into local privileges, such as the right to hunt the cat, the fox, the hare ; the right to have a private gallows, etc. This latter right was greatly valued, as the property of the person hanged was diverted from the Crown and came to the owner of the private gallows.

Mortmain=the dead hand. Property was in "dead hands," or in hands that could not "alienate"—such as corporations. "Alienation in mortmain" is a giving away of lands to a corporation, ecclesiastical or temporal, that cannot give it away or dispose of it again.

(iv) Land in mortmain escaped the burden of many feudal dues and payments.

4. Edward's Reforms, 1274-1290 (ii).—In 1285 was passed the **Second Statute of Westminster**, which enabled landed estates to be settled in one family, and to go down from father to son for ever, thus regarding the actual holder of the property as merely a life-tenant, and preventing him from parting with it.—The **Third Statute of Westminster** gave power to every franklin or freeman to sell his land, or any part of it ; but enacted that the purchaser is to hold the land he has bought of the Overlord himself and not of the seller. The effect of this Statute was to increase the number of tenants-in-chief, that is, of owners who held directly from the king.—The **Statute of Winchester** provided for the proper defence of the country, and also for the police of towns and parishes. In connection with the defence of the country in time of war, the most important measure adopted

Second Statute
of Westminster
1285.

Statute of
Winchester
1285.

by Edward was the compulsory measure regarding knighthood. By this, all persons who owned land to the annual value of £20 were obliged to take up their knighthood—that is, to bind themselves to serve the king during war, either in person or by deputy, and to pay all the aids, reliefs, and other charges that a knight is bound to pay.—And another very important law-reform was carried out in the arrangement by which the Court of Chancery and the Court of King's Bench were always to follow the person of the king, while the Exchequer Court and the Court of Common Pleas were to remain stationary at Westminster.

(i) Estates that could not be sold were said to be **entailed**. This arrangement was carried out in the Statute *De Donis Conditionalibus* (= Concerning Gifts on Condition).

(ii) The clause in the Third Statute of Westminster enacting that portions of land held as sub-tenancies should be held, not from the person who granted the subtenancy, but from the Overlord, was called the *Quia Emptores* (= "Inasmuch as Purchasers"), because these were the two first words of the clause, which was of course written in Latin.

(iii) To carry out the Statute of Winchester, Justices of the Peace were appointed for the first time. (They were called "Guardians of the Peace"; the term J.P. did not come into use until the reign of Edward III.) The same Statute ordered roads between market-towns to be cleared of wood to the breadth of 200 feet—or a bow-shot, on either side, to prevent robbers lurking behind a tree. What arms each man was to keep at home was also provided for in this Statute.

(iv) The **Court of Exchequer** heard all causes that touched the revenue of the kingdom. The **King's Bench** heard suits in which the king was concerned. The **Court of Common Pleas** heard suits between private individuals.

5. Llewellyn and Wales.—Since the time of Edward the Confessor, the Welsh princes and chieftains had always been considered vassals of the kings of England; but both their obedience and their tribute had been intermittent, unsteady, and unequal; and they were generally paid only to those kings who were strong enough to exact them by force. Edward summoned the chief prince, Llewellyn, to London, to pay his homage; Llewellyn politely but firmly declined to come. The king collected a large army, marched into Wales, took Llewellyn prisoner, and brought him to London. He was released upon a promise to pay a heavy tribute; but the Welsh rose again under David, the brother of Llewellyn,—a man who had fought on the English side, and who owed much to King Edward. In this rising Llewellyn was killed, and David was

Conquest
of Wales
1283.

tried for high treason and sentenced to be hanged, drawn, and quartered. A prophecy of Merlin, the Welsh soothsayer, had been current, to the effect that, when English money became round, the Prince of Wales should be crowned in London; and Llewellyn's head, crowned with a wreath, was set upon the Tower, in mocking fulfilment of the ancient prophecy.

(i) Edward annexed Wales, divided it into counties, and placed it under English law. He also granted charters to towns, and gave every kind of encouragement to trade and commerce. All this was done by the *Statutum Gwalliae*. The wildest districts of North Wales he also secured by the strong castles of Conway and Carnarvon—still noble monuments of the greatness of the “greatest of the Plantagenets.”

(ii) “The Welsh settled down peaceably on their lands, and gradually adopted the English customs. Of any massacre of the bards, or any measures taken to repress them, history knows nothing. Never was conquest more merciful than Edward's.”
—PEARSON.

6. The Prince of Wales.—The independence of Wales was now gone, and it became one with England. Edward I.'s policy was to give up all thought of increasing his foreign domains; to make his empire compact within the four seas; to subdue Scotland and Wales; and to make the kingly power felt and respected in every corner of this island of Great Britain. But though Wales was thoroughly subdued, Edward was desirous of attracting to himself and his family the willing loyalty of the Welsh; and he therefore promised to the Welsh chieftains that they should have as a ruler, “a prince born in Wales, who could speak never a word of English, and who never did wrong to man, woman, or child.” This new Welsh prince was his own infant son, who was born in the strong castle of Carnarvon in 1284. The Welsh chiefs did homage to him; a Welsh nurse and Welsh servants were given to him, and ever since this time the eldest son of the King or Queen of England has been called the *Prince of Wales*.

In 1301, when Edward of Carnarvon was 17 years of age, he came to Chester, and, with the silver rod of the principality of Wales in his hands, he received the homage of all Welsh freeholders.

7. Expulsion of the Jews.—The Jews had long been the bankers and money-brokers of England; and, it being considered unchristian to charge interest (or *usury*), the Jews had thus had a monopoly of the trade in money-lending, and had become, in many parts of the island, enormously rich. They were from time to time accused of

horrible crimes ; and the most usual accusation against them was that they captured little Christian boys at their great feasts, and performed human sacrifices. These abominable stories were generally believed by the common people. The Jews lived in a special quarter of each town, called Jewry, and were under the immediate protection of the king ; and the law considered them to be the king's slaves and chattels. Many a time had they assisted the kings of England with money, when the exchequer had been drained by foreign wars. But the popular feeling grew stronger and stronger against them, until at last Edward, after trying in vain to induce them to accept Christianity, was obliged to expel them from the kingdom. They had **Expulsion of the Jews** two months' notice ; 16,000 of them left this country for **1290**. France,—and from the reign of Edward I. to the time of Cromwell, the law excluded all Jews from English ground.

(i) Every opportunity of massacring the Jews was taken hold of, chiefly in order to be able to seize on "the untold wealth in Jewry," or "the incomparable treasure found in the Jewry." The Jews were accused of all sorts of possible and impossible crimes. In 1256, seventy-one Jews were found guilty of crucifying a Christian boy at Lincoln ; and thirty-six of them were hanged. (On this is based the story of "Little Hew of Lincoln," in Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*.)

The special quarter of a town where the Jews lived was called the "Jewry" All Jews had to be indoors at a certain time, had to wear a badge or a dress of a certain colour ; and the gates of the Jewry were locked at night.

(ii) Some few Jews (about fifty) did from time to time come back to England despite the law. The few Christian converts from Judaism were lodged in the "House of Converts" in Chancery Lane, and supported by a royal bounty.

(iii) The Jews had always been an excellent source of income to the kings of England. Their expulsion compelled the kings to go oftener to Parliament for money, and thus increased the power of Parliament.

8. Edward and Scotland.—The Scotch kings had been accustomed to do homage to the kings of England, but only for the lands they held of them in fief within the realm of England. These lands were Tynedale, Penrith, Cumberland, and Huntingdon. Alexander III. of Scotland had left but one grandchild. She was the daughter of Eric, the Norwegian king, and was commonly called the "Maid of Norway." It was proposed that she should marry the eldest son of Edward I., but on condition that Scotland should remain a free and separate kingdom. This hope, however, died with the death of the little princess ; and the succession

passed to the line of David, a brother of William the Lion. David had had three daughters; and there were three claimants—descendants of these daughters—to the throne of Scotland. John Balliol, Earl of Galloway, was descended from the eldest; Robert Bruce, Lord of Annandale, from the second; and John Hastings, Lord of Abergavenny, from the third. There were in all thirteen claimants or “pretenders”; but the foremost were **John Balliol** and **Robert Bruce**, men of Norman descent, who held lands both in England and in Scotland. An appeal was made to Edward, who went down to the Border and met the Scottish Estates (or Parliament) at Norham Castle, on the 10th of May 1291. Edward began by demanding that they should acknowledge him as their “Sovereign Lord,” and that the royal castles should be placed in his hands. This, after some delay, was conceded.

Edward I.
Overlord of
Scotland
1291.

Norham Castle stands on the Tweed near Berwick.

(i) Alexander III. of Scotland had married Margaret, the sister of Edward I.; and the “Maid of Norway” was therefore Edward’s grandniece. Edward tried to unite England and Scotland by inducing the Scots to consent to a marriage between his son, Edward of Carnarvon, and the “Maid of Norway,” his cousin.

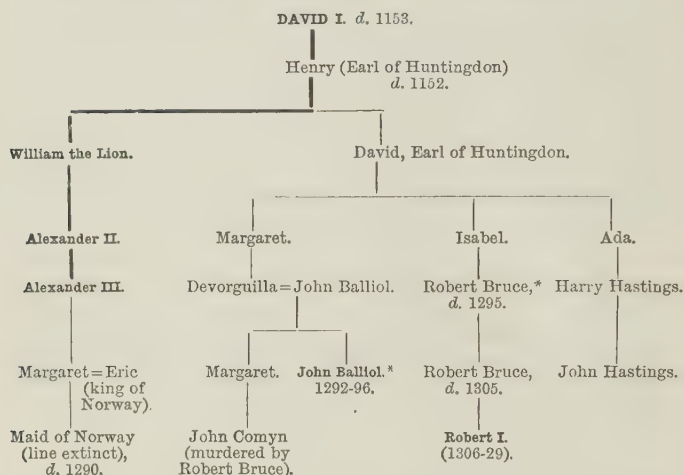
(ii) The rights of Overlordship held by the English kings as regards Scotland had been sold by Richard I. to William the Lion.

9. John Balliol, King of Scotland.—A joint body of English and Scotch commissioners was then appointed; and this commission, after sitting for eighteen months, declared in favour of John Balliol. Balliol accordingly had to do homage, to style himself the liegeman and vassal of Edward, and to admit in express words that this homage was not merely done for lands which he held in England, but “for the whole kingdom of Scotland.” Terrible mortifications were now in store for him. Appeals could now be made to the King of England and to the English courts; and Balliol was obliged to attend them in person. When attending the courts, no regard was paid to his high rank; he was treated just as if he had been a private individual. Once he had to travel all the way from Scotland to London to answer a petty appeal about a cask of wine which had been supplied to King Alexander, and for which the wine merchant swore he had not been paid. Balliol was compelled to pay him. This kind of

Scotland
a Fief of
England
1292.

indignity led his subjects to give him the name of the *Toom Tabard*.¹ He returned to Scotland burning with indignation, and determined to aid his subjects in throwing off the English yoke (1293).

THE CLAIM TO THE CROWN OF SCOTLAND.



Brittany, on the 14th of April 1293. King Philip now took up the case, summoned Edward to appear at Paris; upon his refusal, declared his fief of Gascony forfeited,¹ and marched in troops to take possession (1293).

(i) Edmund, the king's brother, was sent to Gascony; the French king persuaded him to hand over the castles of Gascony for six weeks, and promised to restore them at the end of that time.

(ii) They were not restored. The Scots allied themselves with the French; and France and England were at war for the next four years.

11. The Great Parliament of 1295.—This Parliament marks the highest point reached by the political reforms of Edward I. It was summoned in a legal and regular manner; no important person or town was left out; and the **Three Estates** of Clergy, Lords, and Commons were fully represented for the first time. Hence it has been called the "**First Complete and Model Parliament.**" The working motto of Edward had become the maxim, "What toucheth all should be looked to by all." This Parliament was called by Edward because he found himself engaged in war with France, with Scotland, and with Wales, all at the same time. The Three Estates voted separately, and granted supply separately.

(i) Whereas, in 1283, representatives from only 21 boroughs had been summoned, in this parliament of 1295, writs were issued to 94.

(ii) Just 30 years had passed since Simon de Montfort had summoned citizens and burgesses.

(iii) The shape into which the English Constitution was moulded by Edward I. was the shape which it retained almost unaltered for two centuries.

12. The English in Scotland.—John Balliol now saw his opportunity, and made an alliance with France; and Edward marched northwards to invade Scotland. On the 30th of March 1296, he took the town of Berwick-on-Tweed "by force of arms, without tarrying." That is to say, his men butchered 8000 of the unresisting citizens; the town was ruined, and the "Alexandria of the North" sank into a petty seaport. Here he received the "defiance"² of Balliol. "The felon fool!" thundered the king; "if he will not come to us, we will go to him." The battle of Dunbar was lost by the Scotch; Edinburgh Castle was besieged; Stirling surrendered,

¹ Formerly *forfeaulted*, i.e. lost by default.

² This is a technical term, to indicate that the vassal openly and publicly renounces his allegiance.

“the garrison having run away, and left none but the porter, which did render the keys;” and at Montrose Balliol came in person, disrobed, discrowned, and with the white rod of penance in his hand, to beg for mercy. “There came to him King John of Scotland to his mercy, and did render quietly the realm of Scotland, as he that

Balliol
deposed
1296.

had done amiss.” King Edward carried back into England the Scottish crown and sceptre and “stone of destiny.” It was upon this stone that the kings of Scotland sat when they were crowned. It had been, the legend said, the pillow of Jacob when he saw angels ascending and descending from heaven; and where that stone was, there the Scotch should reign. The prophecy was fulfilled when James Stuart came to the throne of England; the stone still forms part of the coronation chair, and Queen Victoria sat over—if not upon it, when she was crowned in 1838.

(i) The town of Berwick was sacked, the burghers massacred, and the “blood ran down the streets like a mill-stream.” It had been one of the most thriving ports of the time, full of the warehouses of rich Flanders merchants.

(ii) John Balliol was kept in captivity for some years, “with a respectable household, and the right of going twenty miles out of town;” and was then allowed to retire to his property in France.

The “Stone of Destiny” was taken from the Castle of Scone, near Perth.

13. William Wallace.—The government of Scotland was now intrusted to Warrenne, Earl of Surrey, and a Council of Regency—consisting of Englishmen—was appointed. The Scottish nobles gradually came in, tendered their submission, and promised allegiance. But there was one knight who was not seen in the court of Warrenne, who refused to come in, and who put himself at the head of a body of soldiers and outlaws. This was **Sir William Wallace**. Earl Warrenne met him on the 10th of September 1297, at Stirling Bridge. The bridge was wide enough only to allow two horsemen to ride abreast; Wallace skilfully allowed half the English force to cross, and then he fell upon it and cut it to pieces. The treasurer of the kingdom, Cressingham, was among the slain—a man so bitterly detested by the Scotch that they tanned his skin, and made bridles and purses out of it. Wallace now marched south, ravaged Northumberland and Cumberland, and took the title of **Guardian of the Kingdom**.¹ The king, who saw

Wallace
Warden of
Scotland
1297.

¹ *Custos Regni Scotiæ.*

the critical state of affairs, raised a larger army than he had ever led before, and marched into Scotland. Well might Edward respect his new foe; Wallace was the first general that ventured to oppose half-armed peasant foot-soldiers to the mail-clad knights of feudalism.

(i) Warrenne was "Warden of Scotland;" Cressingham "Treasurer of Scotland."

(ii) The full title taken by Wallace was "Warden of the Realm for King John."

14. The Battle of Falkirk.—He forced Wallace to an engagement at Falkirk (July 1298), in which the half-armed Scottish farmers and peasants were defeated by the trained bowmen and heavy-armed knights of the English army. A union of the nobles under Bruce and Comyn continued the struggle; but in two years they were obliged to yield. Wallace would not, and did not yield, but continued to live the life of an outlaw, to carry on a guerilla¹ warfare, and to strike blows at the English troops whenever he had a chance. But, through the treachery of a fellow-countryman, he was at length captured, brought to London, tried for high treason, and put to death in the most barbarous manner at Tyburn Gate.² His head, crowned in mockery with a circlet of laurel, was fixed upon London Bridge. His body was divided into four quarters, and these were sent to be exhibited in the market-places of Newcastle, Berwick, Perth, and Stirling.

Wallace
executed
1305.

(i) Wallace fled to France, where he lay in hiding for seven years. He returned in 1305.

Wallace, Wallis, Willis, and Wales are all different forms of the same word.

(ii) Wallace protested rightly, but protested in vain, that he had never been the English king's subject, that he had made open and fair war upon him, and that he had all the rights that an honourable enemy had or ought to have.

(iii) "English policy desired, before it slew its victim, to brand him as a felon." "A man of rare capacity, he called the first army of independence, as it were, out of the earth, and gave body and enthusiasm to the war."—PEARSON.

15. Robert Bruce.—Four months after, Robert Bruce, Earl of Carrick, was in arms. He was a young man of twenty-three, and grandson of the Bruce who had been a competitor for the throne with Balliol. In 1306, he had met John Comyn, the heir of the house of Balliol, in the church of the Minorites at Dumfries, and stabbed him

¹ A Spanish word, which means a *little war*. It can generally be carried on only in mountainous countries.

² This gate stood where the Marble Arch now stands, at the north end of Hyde Park. Hence the neighbouring suburb is called **Tyburnia**.

to the heart in a quarrel. He immediately assumed the title of King, summoned the Scots to his standard, and was crowned as King Robert of Scotland on the 27th of March 1306. King Edward, upon this astonishing news, vowed a great vow that he would never rest until he had avenged the death of John Comyn; and, fearing he himself might die, he begged that his body might remain unburied until his vow was accomplished by his son. On the 3d of July 1307 he set out from Carlisle with the avowed purpose of ravaging Scotland with fire and sword; but he could hardly sit upon his horse, taking a whole day to ride five miles, and he died at Burgh-by-Sands, on Solway Water, within sight of Scotland, on the seventh day of the same month. With his dying breath, he charged his son Edward, upon pain of his curse, neither to bury his father's bones nor to be crowned himself until Scotland was utterly subdued.

(i) The crown was placed on his head by the Countess of March, for which offence she was afterwards exposed in an iron cage on the walls of Berwick.

(ii) "Edward swore upon two swans to take vengeance upon Robert Bruce for the outrage done to God and God's Church; this vow once accomplished, he would never again bear arms against Christians, but would set out to die in the Holy Land. Prince Edward followed by pledging himself never to sleep two nights in the same bed till he reached Scotland."—PEARSON.

16. Confirmatio Chartarum.—Edward was often hard pressed for money. In 1297 he had made up his mind to go to Flanders to fight Philip III.; but he had no funds. He could not borrow from the Jews, as he had expelled them; he demanded from the clergy half their annual income; he made forced contributions of cattle and corn from the counties; and he raised the export duty on wool to six times its former amount. This was called the *male-tolte*, or "evil-toll." He ordered all the sheriffs of the counties to send him supplies of meat and grain; but he had not received the permission of Parliament for any one of these exactions. He sailed for Flanders; but the discontented barons summoned their friends to a meeting of Parliament in London, and told them to come in arms. The young Prince of Wales had been left behind as Regent; and this Parliament insisted on his confirming Magna Charta and also the Charter of the Forest. This document, which went by the name of the *Confirmatio Chartarum* was sent to Edward at Ghent; and the king found it only prudent to set his seal to it. Thus the great central

power—the power of the purse—was formally declared to be the property of Parliament, and of Parliament alone. “With the reign of Edward,” says a great modern historian, “begins modern England, the England in which we live.” From this time forward we have a long succession of demands for money made by kings, constantly met with demands for privileges made by their subjects; and in this way the power of mere force was gradually broken down. No privilege, no money; no money without further privileges; no money without redress of grievances; no money voted beyond a single year, from one session of Parliament to another session,—these gradually became the foundations of English liberty and right.

(i) The king could get no money from the clergy, as the Pope had forbidden them to make any grant to a layman without his consent. For this, Edward practically outlawed the clergy, as he forbade the Chief-Justice to hear any suit in which a clergyman was plaintiff.

(ii) The *Confirmatio Chartarum* contained an article *De Tallagio non concedendo*, by which no kind of tax, duty, or tallage, could be levied except with the consent of Parliament.

(iii) By the articles added to the *Confirmatio Chartarum*, “the king renounced the right of taxing the nation without national consent.”

(iv) The *Charter of the Forest*, passed in Henry III.’s time, had abolished punishments for slaying deer, etc.

17. The Character of Edward I.—Edward’s great ambition was to be a model feudal knight. He was framed by nature to be a great soldier,—tall, deep-chested, long of limb,¹ patient in hardship, and swift in action. He was beloved by his soldiers and by the nation. His English name, his English look (he had yellow hair), his dogged English temper and truthful English character, endeared him to all classes of the people. He was not cruel, like his ancestors the Angevins, but always ready to forgive if an appeal was made. “No man,” he said, “ever asked mercy of me, and was refused.” He had, too, all the English love and tenderness of family affection. He wept bitterly at the news of his father’s death; he showed at the Battle of Lewes how he felt an insult to his mother; and when his dear wife’s body was carried from Lincoln to Westminster, he planted crosses² at every place where his wife’s bier rested, as memorials of his love and sorrow. When, in violation of his promise to observe the Great

¹ Hence his nickname of *Longshanks*.

² There was one, which has since been restored, at *Charing Cross*, London.

Charter, he had been trying to raise money by exactions and extortions, and had been obliged to meet his nobles and people in Westminster Hall, he burst into tears, and frankly owned himself in the wrong.

(i) His treatment of Wallace is a blot on his memory. Towards his end, too, on nearing the Scottish border, the old Angevin fury broke out, and showed itself in his execution of the young and chivalrous Nigel Bruce, and in his vindictive orders regarding the disposal of his own body.

(ii) Edward's motto was *PACTUM SERVA* ("Keep Troth"); and this was carved on his tomb in Westminster Abbey.

(iii) Edward improved the coinage of the realm. Up to his time, the silver penny had been stamped with a deep cross; and, when change was wanted, it was broken into halves or quarters.

13. Great Men.—Among the great men of this reign, **Edward I.** himself towers above them all easily first, both for his powers of ruling, and for his knowledge of law. For the former he has been justly called "the greatest of the Plantagenets;" for the latter he has been named the "English Justinian." Among the English subjects of Edward, the most prominent are **Earl Warrenne**, **Humphrey Bohun**, Earl of Hereford, Constable of England, and **Roger Bigod**, Earl of Norfolk, Marshal. The first of these was "Guardian of the Scottish Kingdom;" the two last successfully resisted the illegal demands of the king. They were ordered to go to Gascony to attack the French army, while the king himself was to operate in Flanders: they refused, on the proper ground that they were only bound to follow the king's person. "Sir Earl!" cried Edward, "you shall either go or hang!" "Sir King!" replied the Marshal, "I will neither go nor hang!" Among Scotchmen, or, to speak more accurately, Normans who were resident in Scotland, the most distinguished are **Robert Bruce**, **John Comyn** "the Red," and **William Wallace**

(i) Hallam says, "I do not know that England has ever produced any patriots to whose memory she owes more gratitude than Bohun and Bigod."

(ii) The family of Bruce (more correctly *De Brus*) came over with William the Conqueror, and received large grants of land in Northumberland. Bruce the Younger, who was the first Bruce to be crowned King of Scotland, was the grandson of the De Bruce who was the rival of John Balliol.

(iii) **Sir William Wallace** was the younger son of Wallace of Elderslie in Renfrewshire. At the battle of Falkirk, he said to his men: "I have brocht you to the ring; now dance gif ye can!"

(iv) **John Comyn** was Regent of Scotland for his uncle John Balliol. He was murdered by Robert Bruce in 1306.

19. Social Facts.—Wide forests and broad-spread fens continued to cover much of the face of England during this reign. Coal, brought from Newcastle, began to be burned in London ; but the dirt produced by the smoke was vigorously objected to by the inhabitants, and its use was discontinued and prohibited by proclamation of the king as a nuisance in 1306. “Benefit of Clergy” was legally recognised. The population of the whole of England appears to have reached the number of 3,000,000, which is little more than half the number of persons in London at the present day.

(i) Windmills, spectacles, and looking-glasses were introduced in this reign.

(ii) Paper was brought from the East.

(iii) If a man could read a verse in the Psalter (it was generally a verse in the 51st Psalm—which came to be known as “the neck-verse”) his life was spared, and he was only punished by being branded in the hand. That is to say, the criminal, being able to read, was regarded as being a clerk or cleric—as belonging to the clergy, and therefore entitled to the “Benefit of Clergy.”

20. Scotland to 1286.—Alexander II. had no children by his first wife Joan, the daughter of King John of England. He had married again—Mary de Coucy, the daughter of a noble French house. Their son was **Alexander III.**, who succeeded his father at the age of seven. “Mantled, sceptred, and crowned, he was seated on the mysterious Stone of Destiny, in front of the altar, at the east end of the church of Scone.” Two years later, at the early age of ten, he was married to Margaret, the only daughter of Henry III. of England.—Shortly after Alexander came of age, he was obliged to defend his kingdom against a formidable invasion from Haco, king of Norway. The Norse fleet was driven on shore at Largs ; the Scotch people attacked the crews ; the king of Norway landed his men ; and the **Battle of Largs** was fought. The Norsemen were defeated ; and the result of this victory was that the Hebrides and the Isle of Man were annexed to the Crown of Scotland. Another result was that, in 1282, Alexander’s only daughter, Margaret, was married to Eric, king of Norway. But this princess died the year after, leaving behind her a little girl, also called Margaret, and known in Scotland as the **Maid of Norway**. Alexander had, however, a son ; but he died without issue in 1284. In 1285, the king married Joleta, a daughter of the Count de Dreux ; but, early in the year 1286, riding in the dark on the rocky shore of Fife, between Burntisland and Kinghorn, his horse stumbled, and he himself was thrown over a cliff and killed on the spot.

(i) The **De Coucys** were distinguished members of the Order of the Knights Templars. Their boastful motto was :

Roi ne suis, ne prince aussi :
Je suis le Sieur de Coucy.

This may be freely translated :

Neither princes nor Kings be we :
We are the Lords of Coucy.

(ii) On his marriage with Henry III.'s daughter, Alexander did homage for his English estates of Penrith and Tynedale. Henry demanded of him homage for Scotland also ; but the boy was instructed to reply that so important a question could not be discussed on such an occasion.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF EDWARD I.'s REIGN.

1272. Edward I. proclaimed King while still abroad.	1291. Acceptance by Scotch Barons of Edward's Overlordship.
1275. First Statute of Westminster.	1292. Edward selects John Balliol, who accepts Scotland as a fief of England.
1278. (a) Writs of Quo Warranto. (b) Writs enforcing the taking up of knighthood.	1295. THE GREAT PARLIAMENT.
1279. Statute of Mortmain.	1297. CONFIRMATIO CHARTARUM.
1284. Statute of Wales settling the country.	1298. William Wallace defeated at Falkirk.
1285. (a) Second Statute of Westminster. (b) Statute of Winchester.	1305. Wallace taken and executed.
1290. (a) Expulsion of the Jews. (b) Statute of Quia Emptores.	1306. (a) Bruce crowned at Scone. (b) Edward invades Scotland.
	1307. Edward I. dies at Burgh-by-Sands.

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.

1282. The Sicilian Vespers.	1299. Pope Boniface VIII. claims Scotland as a Papal Fief.
1286. Alexander III. of Scotland dies.	1307. William Tell defies Austria.
1294. First Alliance between Scotland and France against England.	1309. Pope Clement V. leaves Rome and goes to reside at Avignon in the south of France.
1296. Scotland becomes a "forfeited fief."	

(i) "The Sicilian Vespers" is the name given to the massacre of the French by the Italian inhabitants of Sicily. The massacre began at Palermo, at "Vespers" (or Even-Song), and went on through the island.

(ii) Eight Popes lived at Avignon, under French influence, from 1309 to 1394. This forced absence from Rome is sometimes called "The Babylonish Captivity"

CHAPTER II.

EDWARD THE SECOND

(OF CARNARVON)

Born 1284. Succeeded (at the age of 23) in 1307. Died 1327.

Reigned 20 years.

EDWARD of CARNARVON was the fourth son of Edward I. His three elder brothers died before their father. He married Isabel, the daughter of Philip IV. of France, who was said to be the most beautiful woman in Europe, and whom Gray, in his poem of "The Bard," calls the "she-wolf of France." They had four children—two sons and two daughters. The eldest son became Edward III., the second, John of Eitham, Earl of Cornwall; and Joan, one of the daughters, married David II. of Scotland. Edward was put to death in Berkeley Castle, near Bristol, in 1327.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

SCOTLAND: ROBERT I.

FRANCE: PHILIP IV.

POPES: CLEMENT V.

LOUIS X.

JOHN XXII.

1. Edward II. 1307-1327.—The story of this reign is a story of weakness, of guilt, of a great defeat, and of a foul and terrible murder. It falls easily into three periods. The first is the period of Edward's personal rule till the Battle of Bannockburn in 1314; and this period is marked by the fall of his greatest personal favourite, Gaveston. The second is the period of the rule of Earl Thomas of Lancaster, till his execution in 1322. The third is the period of ever weakening personal rule again, marked by the favouritism of the Despensers and the revolt of the Queen and her eldest son, and followed by the deposition of Edward himself. This reign thus includes two distinct revolts of the Baronage against the Crown; and, at its close, the powers of Parliament were to a great extent increased. The Three Estates made a beginning of getting the control of the

taxes (that is, not only of *finding*, but of *spending* the money) into their own hands; they also attempted to regulate the choice of ministers; and they made a start, however feeble, in initiating legislation. Edward I., when dying, had charged his son, on pain of his curse, not to bury him, but to carry his bones in front of the army until Scotland was subdued, to push on the war with his utmost strength, and never to recall from banishment his old favourite, Piers de Gaveston. But Edward II., when his father was dead, did none of these three things. He sent his father's body to Westminster, gave up the war, returned to England, and recalled Gaveston. Scotland was left to the care of Aymer de Valence.

Edward of Carnarvon was in London when his father died at Burgh-by-Sands. He hastened north to Carlisle, and received the homage of the English, and of some of the Scottish, barons.

2. Piers de Gaveston.—Peter or Piers de Gaveston, the son of a Gascon gentleman, had since his boyhood led Edward into wild, lawless, and dissolute courses; and now he came back to all his old influence, and into more than his old power. Gaveston, people said everywhere, was the real king, and Edward was the sham one. Gaveston went about openly wearing the crown jewels; at the coronation, he took precedence of all the nobles of the kingdom, bore the crown before the king and was more splendidly dressed than even the king himself; while Edward was so foolishly and madly fond of him, that he even gave up to Gaveston the presents which his own wife had made him. This Frenchman, who was an active and brilliant horseman and a splendid knight, unhorsed at a tournament the four great English Earls who were his bitterest enemies; and at Court he insulted the nobles and invented for them nicknames, which were so apt that people never forgot them. Thomas, Earl of Lancaster, was called the "old hog"; the Earl of Pembroke, "Joseph the Jew"; and the Earl of Warwick, "the black dog of the wood." Warwick vowed that he should one day feel the teeth of the black dog; and he kept his word. Upon the departure of Edward for France to marry Isabella, the daughter of Philip the Fair, Gaveston was created Earl of Cornwall and appointed **Warden of the Realm**. His influence over the king was so complete that it was ascribed to sorcery, and he went among the people by the ordinary nickname of "the witch's son."

(i) When Queen Isabella came to England, she found that her husband paid more attention to Gaveston than to herself. She was "kept wholly without money;" and, writing to her father soon after her marriage, she declared herself "the most wretched of wives." Much later, writing to her brother, Charles iv., she declared that she was "married to a gripple miser, and no better than a waiting-woman, living on a pension from the Despensers."

(ii) The word *favourite* may have two meanings. It may mean (a) a person on whom the king lavishes gifts and honours; or (b) a person whose advice the king prefers to that of any other. In the case of Gaveston, both meanings were united; the queen detested him for the first reason, and the barons for the second.

(iii) The title of **Earl of Cornwall** had always been considered a royal title, and reserved for one of the royal family. The Duchy of Cornwall is still an appanage of the heir-apparent to the throne.

3. The Lords Ordainers.—The marriage took place at Boulogne; and on the 24th day of February 1308, Edward and his queen were crowned at Westminster. When they landed at Dover, they were met by the Regent (or Warden) and the barons; and these lords were not very well pleased when they saw the king, without noticing or speaking to any one else, rush into his favourite's arms, kiss him, and call him dear brother. Three days after the coronation, the barons met in secret council, and forwarded to the king a demand for the banishment of Gaveston. The settled purpose of Edward had always been to free himself from the yoke of the baronage, and to surround himself with ministers who should be wholly dependent on the will and pleasure of the Crown. This had become the custom in France; and this, too, was the substance of the advice given him by his father in his lifetime. On the other hand, the barons were determined to have their proper share in the government, and to establish for ever the principle which is the corner-stone of our constitution—no grant of money without redress of grievances or gift of new privileges. They succeeded so far as to have appointed in full Parliament a **Standing Committee** of twenty-one bishops, earls, and barons, to govern the realm for one year. These lords were called **Lords Ordainers**; and they drew up a list of **Lords Ordainers 1310.**

"**Articles of Reform.**"

(i) Dr. Stubbs points out that an entirely new question was asked of the king at the coronation of Edward ii. It was this: "Will you consent to hold and keep the laws and righteous customs which the *community* of your realm shall have chosen?"

(ii) The most important **Ordinances** of the Lords Ordainers were :

1. The Charters to be observed.
2. No gifts to be made by the king without the consent of the Lords Ordainers.
3. The new taxes on wool, cloth, and wine to be abolished.
4. The king not to make war or leave the kingdom without the consent of Parliament.
5. Great Officers of State in England, Ireland, and Gascony, not to be appointed without the advice and consent of Parliament.
6. Gaveston to be banished for ever.
7. Parliaments to be held once, or—if necessary—twice a year.

(iii) Gaveston, during one of his banishments, was made Lord-Governor of Ireland, and, while there, he ruled well and justly.

4. The End of Gaveston.—The Lords also agreed that Gaveston should be banished. Gaveston went off to Flanders, but in another year he was back again by the king's side. The barons, with Thomas of Lancaster at their head, took up arms, summoned their followers, besieged Gaveston in Scarborough Castle, and forced him to surrender. The two Earls to whom he had surrendered swore by their honour as knights that his life should be safe ; but they guarded him carelessly, and Warwick carried him off, and in spite of his promises, his cries for mercy, and his tears of distress, "the black dog" beheaded him on Blacklow Hill, near Warwick, on the 19th of June 1312.

(i) **Thomas of Lancaster** was not an ordinary baron. He was first cousin to the king, and uncle to the queen. He was the son of Earl Edmund of Lancaster ("Edmund Crouchback," king of Sicily), the younger son of Henry III.; and his step-sister had married Philip the Fair of France. He was the Earl of five large and rich counties.

Crouchback is a corruption of *Crossback*=a man who wears a cross on his back, a Crusader. In the same way, *Cross Hill* has become *Crouch Hill*. So the *Crutched Friars* (on Tower Hill, London) were the Friars who wore a cross on their dress.

(ii) When some of the barons wished to spare Gaveston, the cry arose : "We have got the wolf by the ears : if we let him go, we shall have to hunt him again !" His head was carried by a Black Friar to Edward.

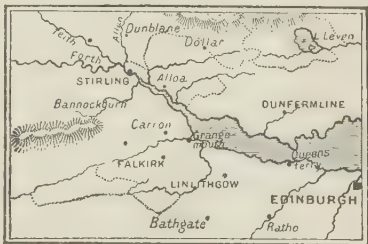
5. Scotland.—The quarrels that filled the time and thoughts of Edward in England, proved to be the opportunity of Scotland. Bruce was everywhere successful ; he took castle after castle, until the only strong place in English hands was the **Castle of Stryvelyn**, or, as it is now called, *Stirling*. Its English governor, Philip de Mowbray, had agreed to surrender it to Bruce if it were not relieved before the Feast of St. John the Baptist.¹ Edward had now to summon up his strength and to lose no time. To raise the

¹ The Feast of St. John is the 24th of June.

siege and to subdue Scotland once for all, he brought together a large army of 100,000 men, of whom there were 30,000 cavalry and 3000 mail-clad knights, marched due north, and met Bruce near Stirling, at a small brook called the Bannock. The night of the 23d of June was spent by the Scottish king in strengthening and improving his position. While the English army was feasting heavily and drinking deep, the Scotch were thinking and planning and preparing the ground for the battle of next day. Bruce's right rested on the Bannock; in front of his centre was a large morass, and the ground on the left was specially prepared. It was seen that the English knights and heavy cavalry would attack on the left, because of the firm ground, and hence Bruce's skilful arrangements for a warm reception of them. In the dead of night he had a large number of pits dug, about three feet deep; and in the bed of these pits were planted caltrops of iron. Over each hole a hurdle covered with turf was placed, which could bear the weight of a man but not of a horse; and thus the ground on the left was honeycombed everywhere with these fatal and treacherous traps. The main body of the Scotch spent the night in prayer and fasting.

(i) Lancaster and those barons who supported him, refused to join Edward in his invasion of Scotland.

Their ground of refusal was that a Parliament must be called before the king could lawfully make war. This was afterwards remembered against Lancaster.



Caltrops are instruments of iron—with a round ball in the middle and four points of iron or steel projecting. Thus at least one point sticks up above the ground, however they are thrown.

(ii) "The scene of the battle was the New Park, which had been enclosed by Alexander III.—an undulating stretch of wooded hill and deep morass lying between the castle and the Bannock-Burn. The fighting took place on and near the old Roman Road, which ran from the Wall at Falkirk in a straight line across the Bannock, and past the Kirk of St. Ninian's in the Scottish rear, close to Stirling. The position was admirably chosen, so as to leave the English no choice of attack as well as to prevent them bringing into action at the same time any but a small part of their enormous forces. The nature of the ground, too, neutralised King Edward's preponderance in cavalry and gave every advantage to the Scottish foot. Bruce's right rested on the rough ground higher up the stream, he was fronted by two morasses

and the broken banks of the Bannock, while his left was secured by the impassable marsh lower down, now drained and known as the Carse of Stirling. Here Bruce, by Saturday the 22d, on which day the English broke camp at Falkirk, had drawn up his poorly-armed peasants in three bands under his brother Edward on the right, Randolph Moray in the centre, and James, Earl Douglas, with the young Walter Steward, on the left. On Sunday, when the two armies were face to face, Clifford, with a picked band of knights, made a dash at Stirling, slipping unobserved between the Carse-land on Bruce's left and a wooded ridge that cut him off from the view of the Scotch, but he was gallantly intercepted and completely defeated by Randolph Moray. As this episode was in progress Bruce was reviewing his centre, mounted on a pony, when the well-known incident of De Bohun's charge at the Scottish king occurred."—COLVILLE.

6. The Battle of Bannockburn, 1314.—Next morning, Edward gave the signal to advance. With heavy regular tread the massive English line came on, glittering with shields and armour, and bristling with spear and battle-axe; and it seemed destined to surround and to crush the little Scottish army without an effort. But, broken by unequal and uncertain ground, and also by clumps of wood here and there, the line had to advance in seven distinct battalions, one behind the other, with Gloucester at the head of the foremost, and the fighting soon became a series of private combats and desperate duels by detached groups of men. Thousands in the English rear were crowded back, and could not get near enough to strike a blow all day. The power of the English cavalry had been rendered almost entirely useless by the pits on the left and the deep bed of the brook. The small body of Scottish cavalry, mounted on active and hardy ponies, were of wonderful use, for they fell upon the flank of the English archers, and chased them from the field.

7. The Defeat of the English.—The English still held on, and fought with all their national doggedness and tenacity, until they saw what they believed to be another Scottish army pouring down upon their rear. This was a body of the servants, sutlers, and camp-followers, with a few soldiers among them to keep them steady, whom Bruce had posted upon the **Battle of Bannockburn 1314.** Gillies¹ Hill, to create this false belief. Down came the Gillies with pieces of tent-cloth at the end of poles, shouting and hurrahing; and then a panic seized the English, and the knights flung away their armour and their lances, and the pikemen their

¹ *Gilly* means *servant*; and it was called *Gillies' Hill* from this event.

spears, and fled in dismay from the field. King Edward wished to stay and fight, but the Earl of Pembroke seized his horse and forced him to flee. He and his knights went off at a gallop; and they never drew rein till they reached Dunbar, a small town on the coast of Haddington. Here he got into a small boat that landed him at Bamborough Castle, on the coast of Northumberland. Half of the English army fell or were taken prisoners. An enormous wealth, both of stores and of money—there were said to be sixty miles of baggage-wagons—fell into the hands of Bruce; while hundreds of nobles and knights who were captured enriched the poorer country of Scotland with their heavy ransoms. On the one hand, it was the most thoroughgoing and terrible defeat ever sustained by an English army; and, on the other, it was a victory which secured the independence of Scotland from that time and for ever.

"Scarcely a religious house in Scotland but showed for generations some spoils from the battle-field."—COLVILLE.

(i) The great **Earl of Gloucester**, the king's first cousin, and one of his best friends, was killed in the battle.

(ii) The result of the Battle of Bannockburn was that Edward lost all control over the country. "Lancaster was practically supreme; he and his fellows, the survivors of the Ordainers, appointed and displaced ministers, put the king on an allowance, and removed his personal friends and attendants as they chose."—STUBBS.

The allowance on which the king was put was £10 a day. This would be equivalent to £100 at the present time.

(iii) A minute, yet surprisingly graphic account of the battle, as well as of the romantic career of the Scottish king, has been preserved in the closely contemporary poem, Barbour's 'Bruce.' Scott's 'Lord of the Isles' follows it closely. Barbour has left us one of the very best monuments of classical Lowland Scotch.

8. The Rule of Lancaster.—After the battle of Bannockburn, **Lancaster** was the most powerful man in the kingdom. He was chosen official president of the Royal Council, he was commander-in-chief of the army; he was everything. "He now," says Dr. Stubbs, "conducted himself as an irresponsible ruler. But he had not a capacity equal to his ambition, and his greed of power served to explain his real weakness. He acted as a clog upon all national action; he would not act with the king, for he hated him; he dared not act without him, lest his own failure should give his rivals the chance of overthrowing him."

9. New Favourites.—Since the murder of Gaveston—for he was put to death without a proper trial—the hatred of the king for the

barons had grown daily in depth and in intensity. He had now found a new favourite, **Hugh le Despenser** ; and upon him he heaped favours and presents, titles and estates. He also gave him his own cousin in marriage—a daughter of the late Earl of Gloucester. The barons again joined in opposition. They were led on this occasion by the Earl of Hereford, who had married the king's sister, the Earl of Lancaster, and by **Roger Mortimer**, Lord of Wigmore, a man who afterwards brought about the fall of Edward. These men called together their retainers and appealed to arms ; but they were met by Edward at Boroughbridge, in Yorkshire ; and totally defeated. Hereford fell in the battle ; Lancaster was beheaded as a traitor ; and Mortimer was condemned to imprisonment for life. Lancaster was dead ; but the place of Lancaster as head of the opposition party was destined very soon to be filled by the queen herself.

The
Despensers
new
favourites
1320.

(i) **Hugh le Despenser** was the grandson of the Justiciar of the baronial government in the time of Henry III. He was aided by his father ; but “father and son were alike ambitious and greedy,” and cared more for their own interests than for the king's.

The name is given variously as *Le Despenser*, *Despenser*, and *Spenser*. The *Despenser* in a baronial household had charge of the *Spence* or *Buttery*. The office was similar to that of Steward.

(ii) The great **Earl of Lancaster** was led to execution on a barebacked and bridleless white horse, in an old coat and old hat, while the mob pelted him with mud. He was ordered to kneel with his face to the north “towards his friends the Scots.”

(iii) The people thought him a martyr, and miracles were wrought at his tomb. His name became a watchword of liberty ; the influence which he had laboured to build up became a rival interest to that of the Crown. First, Edward II. and the Despensers fell before it ; then, in the person of Henry IV., the heir of Lancaster swept from the throne the heir of Edward's unhappy traditions.”—STUBBS.

10. New Quarrels.—Disputes with reference to Gascony had arisen between Edward and the new French king, Charles IV. ; and, most unwisely, Isabella his wife, whose heart had never been true to her husband, was sent over to Paris to arrange for the settlement of them. While there, she sent for her son—afterwards Edward III.—to come and do homage for Gascony to Charles IV. But, after this ceremony, the queen, who had finished the negotiations, refused to return until the Despensers were banished. In the meantime, Mortimer—who was a partner in the plot—escaped from prison, made his way to Paris, was warmly received by the queen, and appointed chief officer

of her household. And thus Mortimer and Isabella formed an open league against their sovereign. On the 24th of September 1326, they landed at Orwell, in Suffolk, with many banished Lancastrian nobles, at the head of an army of foreign mercenaries ; and, so unpopular were the Despensers, father and son, that the queen was hailed by the people as a deliverer, and King Edward had to flee for his life. He fled to the Welsh Marches, and tried to cross over to Lundy Isle ; but contrary winds drove his ship back, and he and Despenser fell into the hands of the new Earl of Lancaster. Despenser, crowned with nettles, was at once hanged on a gibbet fifty feet high ; and the king was sent to Kenilworth Castle until his fate should be decided by a Parliament summoned for that purpose.

The Queen
and Mortimer
land in
Suffolk
1326.

(i) The elder Despenser, though ninety-three years of age, was also hanged.

(ii) Edmund, Earl of Kent, the king's half-brother, was also with the queen and Lancaster party.

(iii) The chief charges against the king were : (a) that he had followed evil counsellors ; (b) that he had neglected the business of the State ; (c) that he had lost Scotland, Gascony, and Ireland ; (d) that he had slain and exiled good men.

11. Edward deposed, January 13th, 1327.—The peers met, asserted their constitutional right—a right which had always existed in pre-Norman England, for kings were then always elected—to depose an unworthy, quarrelsome, and incapable sovereign. Not a single voice was raised on the side of Edward, and the young prince was proclaimed King by acclamation. Sir William Trussel was sent to Kenilworth with a deputation from Parliament, to “make protestation in their name that they would no longer be in his fealty and allegiance, nor claim to hold anything of him as king, but would account him hereafter as a private person without any manner of royal dignity ;” and Sir Francis Blount, steward of the household, solemnly broke his white wand of office—a ceremony only used at a king's death—and declared that all persons in the king's service were thus and thereby completely discharged from all duties towards him. He was after this addressed as “Sir Edward of Carnarvon.”

12. Edward murdered, September 21, 1327.—Edward was placed in the keeping of Sir John de Maltravers, who, to conceal his place of abode, dragged him about from castle to castle, amidst open

disrespect, and even with the meanest and grossest indignities. One day fearful cries and agonising shrieks were heard in Berkeley Castle, and it was darkly whispered in the neighbourhood that the king had died in some terrible and mysterious manner. His murder was said to have been ordered by Isabella—"she-wolf of France"¹—and Mortimer. It was Isabella who "tore the bowels of her mangled mate," and caused the shores of Severn to "re-echo with affright the shrieks that rang through the roofs of Berkeley"—shrieks of a King of England in the agonies of torture and of death.

(i)

"The night

When Severn shall re-echo with affright

The sounds of death through Berkeley's roof that ring,

Shrieks of an agonising king."

"At those cries many a countryman awoke, crossed himself, and prayed as for a soul departing in torment."

(ii) "So the son of the great King Edward perished; and with a sad omen the first crowned head went down before the offended nation; with a sad omen, for it was not done in calm and righteous judgment. The unfaithful wife, the undutiful son, the vindictive prelate, the cowardly minister, were unworthy instruments of a nation's justice."—STUBBS.

13. Great Men.—In the course of this feeble and distracted reign, we meet with no men who are properly entitled to the epithet *great*. But the most prominent characters are **Piers de Gaveston**, and—opposed to him both in policy and personal grounds—**Thomas, Earl of Lancaster**. Later on in the reign, there rise conspicuously before us the two **Despensers**, father and son, both of them great English barons, and—opposed to them—**Roger Mortimer**, Lord of Wigmore, and **Adam de Orleton**, bishop of Hereford.

(i) The grandfather, **Hugh the Proud**, of the young **Despenser**, had been created a baron in 1264, for his services against Simon de Montfort. He afterwards joined Montfort, and became his Justiciar.

(ii) **Adam de Orleton** had been deprived by the king of his lands, which were given to Gaveston.

14. Social Facts.—In the middle of this reign there had been great suffering from bad seasons, famine, the cattle plague, and the invasions of the Scots. Wheat rose to forty shillings a quarter—ten times its usual price; and Parliament in vain strove to arrest the

¹ Gray, in his Ode of "The Bard."

famine by artificially fixing the price of articles of food. Corn was so scarce that an edict was issued that no grain should be malted or beer brewed; roots, horses, dogs, even carrion and loathsome animals were eaten; the old alms of meat and drink was withheld from the poor; and many barons were obliged to turn their retainers out of doors. These formed themselves into bands of hungry robbers who roamed about in quest of food.—The early part of this reign saw, in 1312, the suppression of the order of soldier-monks called the **Knights Templars**. The order was dissolved by a Bull of the Pope—first in France, and then in England. Their property was given over to the **Knights Hospitallers**, or Knights of St. John; and their great house (now “Inns of Court”) became the residence, which it still is, of London lawyers.—**Bills of Exchange** were adopted in this reign; and the enlargement of credit thus produced gave new facilities for trade.

(i) By a decree of the king, the price of an ox was 16s., of a sheep, 3s. 6d., of a fowl, one penny; but, indeed, none of these animals were brought to market at all.

(ii) The **Knights Templars** (called also “Poor of the Holy City” and “Poor soldiers of the Temple of Solomon”) were so called because they at first lived near the Temple at Jerusalem. Their original duties were to guard the roads to Jerusalem and to protect pilgrims. Easy accusations of evil life and of heresy were made against them: but, in France at least, it was their wealth that excited hatred and envy. They possessed no fewer than 9000 manors in Europe.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF EDWARD II.'s REIGN.

1307. (a) **Edward II.** becomes king.

(b) **Gaveston** is recalled and made Earl of Cornwall.

1308. **Earl Thomas of Lancaster**, at the head of the barons, demands the dismissal of **Gaveston**.

1310. (a) **Twenty-one Lords Ordainers** (barons and bishops) appointed to rule the king's household.

(b) **Edward and Gaveston** invade Scotland.

1312. (a) **The Earl of Lancaster** seizes **Gaveston**.

(b) **The Earl of Warwick** puts him to death.

1314. (a) **Battle of Bannockburn**.

(b) **The Earl of Lancaster** the most powerful man in England.

1315. **Famine and high prices.**

1318. (a) **Robert Bruce** invades Yorkshire.

(b) **Lancaster** refuses to fight Scotland.

1320. **The Despensers** come into power.

1322. (a) **Battle of Boroughbridge**.

(b) **Execution of Lancaster**.

(c) **Parliament at York**, with the **Commons** taking, for the first time, a share in legislation. (Hitherto, they had only voted supplies.)

1323. **Thirteen years' Truce** with Scotland.

1326. **Revolt of the Queen and Prince of Wales**.

1327. (a) **Parliament at Westminster** chooses the son instead of the father.

(b) **Deposition of Edward II.**

CHAPTER III.

EDWARD THE THIRD

(OF WINDSOR)

Born 1312. Succeeded (at the age of 14) in 1327. Died 1377.

Reigned 50 years.

EDWARD OF WINDSOR, or Edward III., born at Windsor on November 13, 1312, was the eldest son of Edward II. and Isabella of France. In 1328, before he was sixteen, he married Philippa of Hainault. He had 11 children—6 sons. The most important of them were: Edward the Black Prince; Lionel, Duke of Clarence; John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster; and Edmund, Duke of York. Edward the Black Prince did not succeed to the throne, as he died in 1376—the year before his father.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

SCOTLAND: ROBERT I.

DAVID II.

ROBERT II.

FRANCE: PHILIP VI.

JOHN.

CHARLES V.

SPAIN: PEDRO.

HENRY II.

1. **Edward III.'s Reign.**—The reign of Edward III. saw the beginning of the **Hundred Years' War**; heavy taxation in consequence; and an increase in the power of Parliament—more especially of the Commons, as the ultimate result. It saw also the diminution of the power of the **Pope** in England. The coming of the terrible plague called **The Death** or **The Black Death** brought about a fundamental change in the position of the serfs or villeins who tilled the soil, while it helped to break up the manorial system. In this reign, too, England lost for a time her old command of the sea; lost, moreover, all her possessions in France, with the insignificant exception of the three towns of **Calais**, **Bordeaux**, and **Bayonne**. This reign also saw the rise of the **Lollards** and other anti-clerical parties, and the growth, along with

the Universities, of a class of laymen who were sufficiently educated to take their share in the management of the affairs of the State. On the side of industry and commerce, England prospered greatly in this reign, for Edward encouraged both to the utmost of his power.

(i) The great scarcity of labour that was the result of the Black Death so enhanced its value that the working classes were enabled to improve their position to a very great extent.

(ii) "Edward III. was the father of English commerce; and, in his reign, commerce became, next to liberty, the leading object of Parliament."—HALLAM.

2. Edward III., 1327-1377.—Edward was only fourteen when he was called to reign over England; and a regency of nobles was formed, the head of which was Henry, Earl of Lancaster—the younger brother of Earl Thomas. But the real power remained in the hands of Queen Isabella and Mortimer, who did whatever they pleased. In 1328, peace was made with the Scotch at Northampton, and all claims of feudal superiority over them were given up for a sum of money; a marriage was contracted between David, the son of the Scotch king, and Joan of the Tower, the youngest daughter of Isabella; and last, and worst of all, the Earl of Kent, the brother of the late king, was seized and beheaded. Mortimer was growing every day more insolent and more unpopular; and even his own son was in the habit of calling him the "King of Folly." He and the queen divided between them the money obtained from the Scotch and from the forfeited estates of their opponents; and when he appeared in public, it was not as an ordinary but powerful noble,—it was with all the accompaniments of kingly state. He even treated the young Edward with haughtiness and cold disdain. At last, when the young king had reached the age of eighteen (and was the father of the Black Prince), he determined he would bear it no longer. Mortimer was staying at Nottingham Castle; and the governor, who was on the king's side, admitted by an underground passage a party of nobles with Edward at their head, who arrested the favourite and carried him off, in spite of the cries and entreaties of the Queen Isabella. A Parliament was summoned for consultation, and Mortimer was condemned to death by his peers, without being heard in his own defence, and was hanged at Tyburn on the 29th of November 1330. Isabella was made a State prisoner, and passed most of her life at Castle Rising in Norfolk.

Mortimer
arrested
1330.

(i) The peace made at Northampton was called the "**Shameful Peace**," because all claims over Scotland were finally given up, and because these claims were sold to the Scotch for £20,000.

(ii) Mortimer went about with a guard of 180 knights, and people spoke of him as a "May-day king." At a Parliament which met at Salisbury he was created **Earl of March**; and he and the Queen not only pocketed the money received from the Scotch, but held all the estates of the two Despensers, and the larger part of the Crown lands.

(iii) Tyburn (= the brook Ty) Elms, near the Marble Arch, Oxford Street, London, was the place of execution for malefactors for many centuries.

3. Halidon Hill, 1333.—Edward Balliol (the son of King John Balliol) saw an opportunity, during the minority of David, of striking a blow for the crown of Scotland; and in this scheme he was to some extent successful. King Edward was drawn into the dispute, and he summoned his army and marched into Scotland to help

Battle of Balliol. He met the Scotch, led by the Regent Douglas, at Halidon Hill **Halidon Hill**, near Berwick, and overthrew them with great **1333.**

slaughter. The result of the victory was to place Balliol once more upon the throne; and, to repay the services of Edward, Balliol made a grant to him of all Scotland south of the Forth. Against such a degradation the whole Scottish nation rose as one man, and drove Balliol out of the country. At Berwick he was joined by Edward, and, for three years (from 1335 to 1337), they and their troops overran the country and harried it with fire and sword. The French had assisted the Scotch with men and money; and this, in addition to his standing claim upon the crown, determined Edward now to turn his arms against the stronger power.

(i) **Halidon Hill** was one of the great victories won by the English bowmen: they "made their arrows fly as thick as motes in the sunbeam."

(ii) The wary King David fled to France, and lived in "Saucy Castle" (Château Gaillard) in Normandy. When he returned two years after, Balliol did not venture to lift a finger against him.

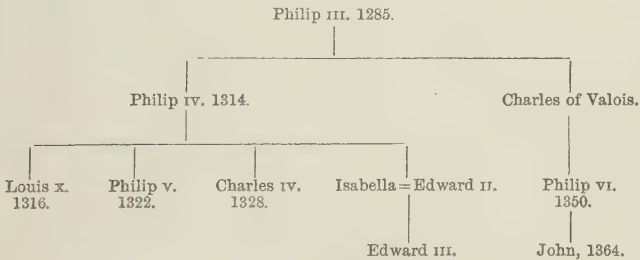
4. The Hundred Years' War.—The male issue of the Capet dynasty in France had died out with Charles iv. in 1328; and, as women were excluded from the throne by the Salic law, the crown devolved upon Philip of Valois, the grandson of Philip iii. But a claim on the French crown was made for Edward, by right of his mother Isabella, the daughter of Philip iv. It was contended that, though a woman could not reign, the descendant of a woman, if in the direct line, was rightly and legally eligible to the throne;

and Edward was the grandson of Philip the Fourth. This dispute proved to be the beginning of a long war. The English Parliament took the side of their king, and voted large supplies ; but they stipulated that, in the event of Edward's making good his claim, the two kingdoms should for ever remain distinct and separate. The **Hundred Years' War** is the name given to it by French writers ; because, though there was not continuous fighting, there was no lasting or settled peace between the countries all that time. Edward now began to look about everywhere for allies. He made a league with Flanders, with the Empire of Germany, and with several of the poorer German princes, who were always ready for a little money and a little fighting.

The Hundred
Years' War
begins
1337.

(i) Queen Victoria was excluded from the succession to the crown of Hanover in 1837 by the operation of the Salic law. William iv. was the last English King of Hanover ; and we have thus been saved from many of the entanglements of Continental politics.

(ii) The following table shows the succession :



(iii) "The male issue of such females were not excluded."

5. Edward in Flanders.—Edward passed over to Flanders in 1338, with the queen and all his court. While residing there, two sons were born to him ; and these princes took their names from the places of their birth—Lionel of Antwerp and John of Gaunt.¹ Edward's first great victory was in a sea-fight off **Sluys**, on the 24th of June 1340. The enemy's ships were so numerous that "their masts appeared to be like a great wood ;" but Edward, leading the van, went straight in among them, and the terrible hand-to-hand fight that followed lasted all through the

Naval
Victory at
Sluys
1340.

¹ A form of *Ghent*. The modern Flemish form is *Gand*. Shakespeare, in *Richard II.*, makes the dying Gaunt pun upon his own name.

night, and ended in the defeat of the French with terrible slaughter. The French fleet was swept clean off the face of the French seas.

(i) So great was the slaughter and so complete the victory that no one dared to tell King Philip the news. At last the Court Jester was sent in. "Oh, the coward English, the coward English!" he cried, "they had not the courage to jump into the sea as our noble Frenchmen did."

(ii) *Sluys* is a small seaport near the mouth of the Scheldt in the country now called Holland.

(iii) "In the cities of Flanders had arisen manufacturing populations which supplied the countries around with the products of the loom. To the Ghent and Bruges of the Middle Ages England stood in the same relation as that which the Australian Colonies hold to the Leeds and Bradford of our own day. The sheep which grazed over the wide unenclosed pasture-lands of our island formed a great part of the wealth of England; and that wealth depended entirely on the flourishing trade with the Flemish towns in which English wool was converted into cloth."—GARDINER.

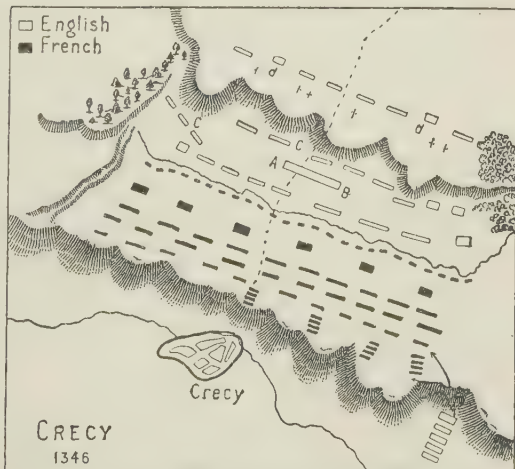
6. Troubles in England.—While Edward was in Flanders, making ready for the invasion of France, he was terribly in need of money; and he conceived the idea that his own ministers were keeping back the funds they had collected and were intercepting the supplies that were so necessary to him. He suddenly set sail with a few friends and arrived in London in the dead of night on the 30th of November 1340. He at once dismissed his Chancellor, Robert of Stratford, Treasurer, and threw into prison several judges and officers of the Exchequer. He accused **John of Stratford**, Archbishop of Canterbury (whom he called "a mouse in his bag, a serpent in his lap, a fire in his bosom") of wasting his money, and ordered him to appear and plead before the Court of Exchequer. The Archbishop refused to appear; and demanded that he should be tried by his peers. The Barons supported him in this demand; and the king was obliged to yield. This crisis is remarkable for two things: first, the constitutional maxim that a peer can only be tried by his peers; second, the first appointment of a **Layman** as **Chancellor** of the Realm, instead of a Churchman—as had always been the case before. Edward also made other concessions; but when he had got his money, so weak was his feeling of honour that he revoked his promises and was not ashamed to avow that he "had wilfully dissembled as he ought." In spite of this, however, Parliament was and showed itself to be stronger than it had ever been before.

(i) The other concessions were : (a) The accounts of the realm to be audited by **Auditors** appointed by Parliament ; (b) Ministers to be appointed after consultation between the king and the barons ; (c) At the beginning of each Parliament, Ministers to resign their offices and be ready to answer complaints against them.

(ii) The first of these concessions gave to Parliament the complete "power of the purse." The second and third established the constitutional maxim of the **responsibility of Ministers to Parliament**.

(iii) This Parliament of 1340 granted the king **Tonnage and Poundage**—that is, 2s. on every tun of wine imported, and 6d. on each pound of merchandise—whether imported or exported.

7. Cressy, August 26, 1346.—After six years more of alternate war and truce, the English once more met the French ; but this time it was upon land. Edward had left his queen, Philippa of Hainault, as Regent in England, and had landed at La Hogue, near Cherbourg, with an army of thirty thousand men. He marched north and west to join the Flemings ; and, on the way, he halted at the little village of Cressy,¹ near Abbeville, and resolved to take his stand there and to risk a battle. His army consisted, in addition to the men-at-arms, of light-armed infantry from Ireland and Wales ; and a powerful force of English long-bowmen. The king ordered his knights and cavalry to dismount, and took up his position on the slope of a low hill with a ditch in front. A windmill crowned the rising ground, and the king saw and directed the battle from the wooden



A, marks the Prince of Wales's troops in front ; B, the Welsh and Irish ; C, the troops of Northampton and Arundel ; d, the reserves commanded by the king. The - - - on the stream are the Genoese bowmen.

gallery of the mill. Between the companies of English bowmen

¹ Or Crecy.

were small bombards,¹ "which with fire threw little iron balls to frighten the horses." The French attack began with the advance of fifteen thousand Genoese cross-bowmen; but a storm of rain had wetted their bowstrings, the sun was in their eyes, and their aim was bad. The reply from the English archers, who had kept their bows covered during the rain, was direct and terrible: "it seemed as if it snowed."—On the right the Prince of Wales was hard pressed by the Count of Alençon at the head of the French knights. A messenger galloped up to the windmill with a request for help from Edward, "The boy is in a hard passage of arms;" but Edward refused. "Is he dead, or unhorsed, or wounded?" said the king. "No? Then let the boy win his spurs: for I wish, if God so order it, that the day may be his."—The blind king of Bohemia was led into the battle with his horse tied to the horses of two brave knights, his vassals. "I pray you," he cried, "to lead me so far into the fight that I may strike one good blow with this old sword of mine!" And with eager shouts they plunged together into the thick of the fight, and fell among the heap of wounded and dying and dead.—At last the French, beaten at every point, turned and fled from the field in complete disorder; and Philip, their king, fled with them.

Cressy

1346.

—The fact most worthy of note in this battle is, that the foot-soldiers proved themselves more than a match for the heavily-armoured knights; and this fact marks the beginning of the end—was the first sign of the decay of feudalism. The feudal state rested upon war; and upon war as made by a few elaborately-armed knights and nobles, mounted on high and strong war-steeds, and cased in "complete steel" from head to foot. But now, in this battle, it was seen that the foot-soldiers were superior to the horse, that the churl could beat the noble, and that the bondsman was, in battle, the equal of the knight.

(i) Cressy was "the first of that great series of battles, in which the small armies of the English showed themselves superior to overwhelming numbers of the French."

(ii) The French army was very unfortunate in its march. An eclipse of the sun which darkened the sky, a terrible thunderstorm, rain in torrents which drenched the men and slackened the bowstrings of the archers, clouds of ravens and other birds flying above their heads before the storm—it was under these circumstances that the French came up to the English forces. Then, when the sun came out, it shone full in the faces of the French army.

¹ This is the first instance of fire artillery in field warfare: it had been before used in sieges.

(iii) "Cressy proved that English villeins—common men bending their long bows—and Welsh and Irish serfs, armed with knives and spears—were more than a match for the proud nobles of France, mounted on war-horses and clothed in gorgeous armour."

"When they drew near, the Genoese bowmen made a great leap and cry to abash the English; but they stood still and stirred not for all that. And a second time they made another leap and a fell cry, and stepped forward a little, and the Englishmen removed not one foot. Again they leapt and cried, and went forward till they came within shot, then they shot fiercely with their cross-bows. Then stepped forth the English archers one pace; and their arrows flew so wholly and so thick that it seemed snow. When the Genoese felt the arrows piercing through heads and arms and breasts, many of them cast down their cross-bows and ran back. When the French king saw them flying, he said, 'Slay me those runaway rascals, for they block our path!' Then the men-at-arms dashed in among them and killed a great number thereof: and still the English bowmen kept shooting wherever they saw the thickest press."—FROISSART.

8. Calais, Aug. 31, 1346—Aug. 4, 1347.—Edward could not follow up his victory; his forces were too small. He rested on the ground, and then turned aside to besiege Calais. There were many reasons why he should wish Calais to be in his possession. It was just opposite Dover; it was a great haven of pirates, who made all trade in the Channel insecure,—twenty-two privateers had sailed from its port in one year; it commanded Flanders and France,—it was indeed the "key of France," was "an open doorway into France;" just as Dover was the "lock and key of England," and just as Gibraltar is to this day the "key of the Mediterranean." He therefore proceeded to blockade Calais by sea and land until it was reduced by starvation. There is a beautiful old story,—but unfortunately with little historical foundation,—that Edward offered to grant mercy to the garrison only on condition that six of the principal burgesses, bareheaded, barefooted, and with halters on their necks, should give themselves up to him to be dealt with as he should please. "On them," said Edward, "will I work my will." Master Eustache de St. Pierre was the first to volunteer; and the others were soon found. Then the queen, moved with deep pity, flung herself at the knees of the king, and earnestly implored mercy for them. "Lady," he said, "I would you had been elsewhere; I dare not refuse you; I do it against my will; yet—take them; I give them to you."—Calais surrendered; English colonists were placed in possession; and it remained English territory for more than two hundred years.

Taking of
Calais
1347.

Calais flourished under English rule.

(i) The possession of Calais brought with it the following advantages: (a) It was in the immediate neighbourhood of the king's Flemish allies; (b) it was an excellent

port for English wool—which was then our chief export; (c) it was one of the “gates of the Channel.”

(ii) The inhabitants had their choice given to be French or English. Those who declined to swear fealty to Edward were expelled, and their places filled with Englishmen. The city received large privileges as a market-town, and grew and prospered under English rule. It was enacted that all wool intended for the Continent should pass through Calais. In the time of Henry VIII. it sent members to the English Parliament.

(iii) A great naval victory fell to Edward in 1350. A Spanish fleet of forty large vessels had entered the Straits of Dover. The king met them off Winchelsea, attacked them, took twenty-four ships, sunk several others,—and, from this great success, took the title of “King of the Sea.”

9. Neville's Cross, 1346.—The year before this the queen had rendered signal service to the king and his kingdom. For, two months after the battle of Cressy, a Scotch army, taking advantage of the king's absence, had marched into England, when the queen, without hesitation, raised an army as quickly as she could, met them at Neville's Cross, near Durham, on the 12th of October 1346, and utterly routed them. David II., king of the Scots, and Edward's own brother-in-law, was taken prisoner, and long kept in captivity in England. David afterwards tried to secure the Scottish crown for his nephew, Lionel of Antwerp; but the Scottish nation would not hear of it.

10. The Black Death.—In 1348 and 1349 a terrible plague visited England. It came from Asia; and, after devastating Europe, appeared in England at the close of 1348. The population of England was then not quite four millions—much less than that of London alone to-day; and it swept away more than one-half of the people. The great towns fared worst; for infection spread there more quickly, and the streets were narrow, filthy, and undrained. In Bristol, the living were hardly able to bury the dead; in Yorkshire, more than one-half of the priests perished; “the sheep and cattle strayed through the corn, and there were none to drive them;” and the cattle rotted and poisoned the air in the fields. For generations after, it was talked of solemnly as “The Death.”¹ Most of the labourers were dead; and the few that remained now demanded higher wages. This gave rise to

First appearance of the Black Death 1349.

¹ Chaucer, in his Prologue, describes the fear in which his servants stood of the Reeve; “They were adrad of him as of the dethe.”

the famous **Statute of Labourers**, in which the price of labour was fixed ; the peasant was once more bound to the soil ; and runaways were ordered to be branded with a hot iron upon the forehead. Famine, moreover, threatened the country : the land could not be tilled, and harvests could not be gathered for want of hands. In this state of things, England had no heart to go on with the French war.

(i) The **Black Death** also visited England in the years 1361, 1369 and 1407. Two-thirds of the clergy in Norfolk died ; in Norwich alone, 60,000 persons. The population of London, after the plague had ceased, was returned at only 35,000.

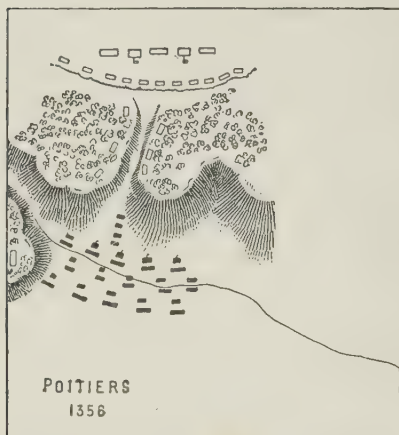
(ii) The death of one-half of the population had two distinct effects : (a) it enormously increased the price of labour ; (b) it enormously decreased the value of land. The landowners tried to enact laws that would make things as they had been before ; but the task was impossible. Where there was hay to be made, or a crop of corn to reap, the labourers could practically exact their own prices ; and no Acts of Parliament could compel them in *all* parts of the country.

(iii) Another effect of the **Black Death** was that many landowners gave up letting farms for corn, etc., and laid down their lands in permanent pasture, for the purpose of growing wool. It was easier to pay one shepherd than fifty labourers. England was at this time, and for long after, the great producer of wool for the Flemish looms.

11. Poitiers, Sept. 19, 1356.—But the war with France was renewed in 1355 ; though the leader now was that younger Edward who had so brilliantly distinguished himself at Cressy. He is known to history as the **Black Prince**,¹ from the colour of the armour he wore in that battle. This prince led a Seven Weeks' Raid into the south of France, met with no opposition, and returned to his city of Bordeaux laden with the spoil of five hundred plundered cities, towns, and villages. The year after, he made another expedition to the north-east ; when, on the 19th of September 1356, he found himself at Poitiers, without provisions, and hemmed in by an army five times as large as his own. In these fearful circumstances, he offered to the French to give up all his booty, to dismiss the larger part of his army, and to bind himself not to fight against them for seven years. But they refused the offer ; they demanded the prince himself and one hundred of his knights as prisoners, with the purpose of exchanging them afterwards for the town of Calais. The prince declined the French terms ; and, seeing there was nothing else for it, made up his mind to fight. He took up a strong position on three low hills,

¹ Prince Frederick Charles of Germany, who played so important a part in the Franco-German war of 1870-71, was known as the "Red Prince."

his front covered with thick hedges; and the enemy could get at him



only by coming up a long narrow lane be-
tween two of these hills, which were covered with vineyards. The English bowmen lined the hedges and vineyards; and the end of the lane was strongly held by a small but determined body of men-at-arms, while another body was in ambush, to fall on the French flank. The French were sure of victory, and eager for the fight; and,

Poitiers
1356.

numbering from 60,000 to 80,000 they thought they had the English entirely at their mercy. Three hundred French knights began the battle, and charged up the narrow lane; the rest followed; and the bowmen from behind the hedges had them right under the points of their arrows and slaughtered them at their ease. The main body of the French army were unable to get near the English, for the block of the dead bodies of their own men. The French king, John the Good, was taken prisoner, in spite of a desperate resistance; and by noon 11,000 of the French had fallen, 2000 were prisoners, and the rest had taken to flight. King John was brought captive to London; and a ransom so large—three million gold crowns—was demanded for him, that France,¹ though then extremely rich, was unable to pay it. John had to remain in England, and he died in London, at the Savoy Palace, beside Temple Bar.

(i) The long lane or cleft between the hills was called by the French *Maupertuis* (= "Ill Gap" or "Evil Chine"). No position could be better.

(ii) Many of the Black Prince's army had not tasted food for three days; and they fought with the courage of despair.

(iii) "Crecy and Poitiers demonstrated to the world that a people with united ranks, in which the nobility and gentry regarded the townsmen and the yeomen as their fellow-citizens, was stronger than a people in which distinction of rank was

¹ It is now the richest country on the continent of Europe. In 1871 it paid to Germany £200,000,000 without great difficulty.

everything, and in which the business of defence was intrusted to the more showy part, instead of being a burden upon the whole."—GARDINER.

(iv) During the captivity of King John in England, the misery of France was so great that the peasantry rose against the nobles, and put a large number of them to death. This was called *La Jacquerie* or the Rising of Jacques, from Jacques Bonhomme (=James Goodfellow), the nickname for a French peasant.

12. The Great Peace.—Four years after the battle of Poitiers, in 1360, the Great Peace, or Peace of Bretigny, was made, by which Edward's duchy of Aquitaine was secured to him, not as a fief of France, but in absolute sovereignty; and Calais was also left in the hands of England. In this peace, the great English poet *Chaucer*, who had been fighting in France and had been taken prisoner, was exchanged and set free.

The Great
Peace
1360.

(i) By the Great Peace of Bretigny, Edward gave up his claim to the French crown, and to Normandy, Maine, and Anjou. On the other hand, besides the complete sovereignty of Aquitaine (including Gascony, Guienne, Poitou, etc.), he received also that of Ponthieu and Calais, freed from all feudal claims on the part of the French kings. The English possessions between the Loire and the Pyrenees were erected into a principality; and the Black Prince was made Captain-General.

(ii) In the same treaty, King John was to be liberated on payment of 3,000,000 pieces of gold. He himself was allowed to return to France on parole to collect it; but he did not succeed.

13. Renewal of the War, 1369.—The Black Prince had undertaken an expedition into Spain to help Pedro the Cruel against his subjects; and the only result was broken health and ruined finances. To raise money, the Black Prince imposed heavy taxes on his French subjects; and this harshness moved his Gascon subjects to appeal in 1369 to Charles v., who was now king of France. This appeal was made in spite of the fact that, by the Peace of Bretigny, the kings of France had given up all claims over Gascony and the neighbouring provinces. But the men of Aquitaine, who used to pride themselves on their independence of the French kings who ruled at Paris, now began to feel that they were really under the yoke of the foreigner. Charles v. had recourse to two devices. In the first place, he gave up fighting with heavily-armed knights, and trusted more to carefully drilled hired soldiers, who were mostly footmen. In the second place, he sedulously avoided pitched battles, and tried to weary out the English by retreats, by minor skirmishes, by cutting off supplies. Meanwhile, the Spaniards had joined the French at sea; and in 1372

their united ships met the fleet of the Earl of Pembroke off **Rochelle**. The English fleet was utterly defeated ; the Earl of Pembroke was taken prisoner ; and his treasure-vessel sunk to the bottom of the sea. John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, invaded France in 1373 ; but this invasion was a miserable and disastrous failure. By the end of the year 1374, of all the vast English possessions in France, there remained in English hands only **Calais**, **Bordeaux**, and **Bayonne**.

(i) One of the reasons for the Spaniards joining the French was that John of Gaunt assumed the title of King of Castile.

(ii) "It was indeed a day of triumph for the Spaniards, for the English had suffered no such defeat during the whole reign of Edward III."—LONGMAN.

14. The Good Parliament.—The Black Prince had ruined his health in his expedition into Spain, and was slowly dying ; the king was old and feeble ; and the ruling power fell into the hands of John of Gaunt. Queen Philippa was dead ; and a favourite of the old king, Alice Perrers, a woman of ability and wit, but of low character, had made herself all-powerful in the court, and interfered with the administration of affairs, and even with the course of justice. Misrule of all kinds abounded, until the "Good Parliament" of 1376 set itself earnestly to the work of reform. It met with opposition from John of Gaunt, but it had the hearty support of the Black Prince. It compelled Alice Perrers to swear that she would never again enter the king's presence ; it impeached two of the ministers of John of Gaunt ; and it solemnly presented to the king one hundred and sixty petitions setting forth the grievances of the realm.—Before the time of Edward I., the clergy, the barons, the knights, and the burgesses had always met in the same room, though they voted grants independently of each other. From his time the knights and burgesses formed a separate house, called the House of Commons.

The Good Parliament 1376. And this "Good Parliament" is very noteworthy as the first in which the Commons felt themselves so strong as to dare to impeach the ministers of the Crown. This marks the new strength of the middle, moneyed, and industrious class, as distinct from the powerful landed baronage.

15. Scotland to 1329.—After the death of her grandfather in 1286, **Margaret**, the Maid of Norway, succeeded to the throne, under a Council of Regency. This Council consisted of six men—three

to manage the affairs of the old kingdom of Scotland north of the river Forth, and three to govern the Lothians and Galloway. The Estates of Scotland made a very important treaty with Edward I. in 1290, which was called the **Treaty of Brigham**, from the village near Berwick, where it was signed. Edward also intended to marry the young Scottish princess to his eldest son, Edward II.; but her death at Orkney, on her way to Scotland, in the autumn of 1290, put an end to these hopes. There were ten competitors for the crown of Scotland, all of whom acknowledged, at Norham Castle, Edward I.'s claim to be Overlord or Lord Superior of Scotland. These ten were cut down to two—**John Balliol** and **Robert Bruce** of Annandale, the grandfather of the Robert Bruce who became king of Scotland in 1306. John Balliol, as the grandson of Margaret, the *eldest* daughter of David, Earl of Huntingdon, was appointed by Edward to be king of Scotland.—Balliol reigned for only four years, from 1292 to 1296; and in the course of this short reign he had to suffer, at the hands of English lawyers, various insults and degrading proofs of his vassalage to the English king. Finally, Balliol was deposed by Edward: he was sent to the Tower of London, but was afterwards permitted to reside upon his estate of Bailleul in France, from which he had also his name. The struggle of **William Wallace** followed; then came the rise of **Robert Bruce** and the terrible defeat of Bannockburn in 1314. Before Bruce died (1329), the complete independence of Scotland was acknowledged by the English Parliament; and the **Treaty of Northampton** brought peace to both countries.

(i) The river Forth was at one time called the "Scots Water."

(ii) The **Treaty of Brigham** provided: (a) that the laws and liberties of Scotland should be inviolate; (b) that the kingdom of Scotland was to be separate from England, and marked off by distinct marches; (c) that no native of Scotland could be obliged to go to England to answer either in a civil or in a criminal case; and that (d) there should be a national Great Seal, and that Seal should be always in the keeping of a native of Scotland.

(iii) "**Norham Castle** was then freshly built, and endowed with those new elements of resistance and destruction introduced by the Norman kings, which were the wonder and terror of the day. Nothing of the kind existed within Scotland; but there it stood close to the edge of the Tweed—so close that a stone might have been pitched from England into Scotland by a catapult on the battlement."—BURTON.

(iv) "This king of Scotland was obliged to stand at the bar like a private person, and answer to an accusation brought against him for denying justice."—PARLIAMENTARY HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

(v) The most terrible act of Edward I. against Scotland was the assault on Berwick, in 1296, and the slaughter of its citizens. There was an end of the great city of merchant-princes, and Berwick was henceforth to hold the rank of a common market-town.

(vi) One of the articles in the *Treaty of Northampton* provided that the son of Robert the Bruce should marry Joanna, daughter of Edward II. This son succeeded Robert with the title of David II.

16. Death of the Black Prince.—On the 8th of June 1376, the Black Prince died. He had been the darling of the nation ; he had won for them great glory in war, and he had done what he could for the prosperity of England in time of peace. He was buried in Canterbury Cathedral, where his tomb, with his coat of mail, his helmet, and shield above it, may still be seen. His great victories and laborious efforts in France had dwindled, before his death, into very little ; and of all her vast French territories, England in the end of the year 1374, held nothing but three towns.

“Chivalry was to the mediæval warrior very much what monasticism was to the mediæval churchman. It placed before him his own mode of life in the best and highest light of which it was capable. The rough and often brutal warrior learned that self-restraint and respect for others were higher than prowess in the field. The Black Prince showed himself nobler in humbly waiting on a captive king than when he won his spurs by his charge at Crecy.”—GARDINER.

17. The Work of Edward's Parliaments.—The more deeply Edward was engaged in war, the more money he was obliged to find. And the more money he was obliged to find, the oftener he had to apply to his Parliaments ; and the stronger these Parliaments grew. Hence there was, during the reign of Edward III., very considerable parliamentary activity. The chief statutes passed were the *Statute of Provisors*, the *Statute of Praemunire*, and the *Statute of Treasons*. When the king sent an address to Parliament, he took care to mention the Commons along with the Great Men (Les Graunts) or Barons ; as he expected pecuniary assistance from them also. Like his predecessors, Edward was in the habit, when he could, of levying taxes without the consent of Parliament—especially upon wool, and of obtaining large grants from wealthy merchants. The tendency of this practice was to make the king independent of Parliament ; and this was forbidden by statute in the year 1362—“No imposition, tallage, nor charge whatsoever to be laid by the Privy Council without

the grant and consent of the Commons in Parliament." Thus Parliament "asserted the important principle of self-taxation."

(i) The Statute of Provisors was passed in 1351, to prevent the Pope presenting Italians ("aliens which did never dwell in England") to livings in the English Church. He also confiscated to himself the first year's income of these livings; and appointed certain persons called "Provisors" to collect the money. Moreover, when a dispute arose, the Provisors carried the matter into the Papal Court; and those who resisted had to defend themselves in the Court of Rome.

(ii) The Statute of *Praemunire* (a corruption of the phrase *Praemoneri facias*—"Let it be told beforehand to," etc.) was passed to forbid persons prosecuting a suit in the Pope's or in any other foreign courts without the permission of the king. Offenders against this statute were outlawed. The Statute was passed in 1353.

(iii) The year 1332 is remarkable as the first year in which the Lords met separately from the Commons. The Bishops, Prelates, and Barons sat in the "White Chamber" of the Palace of Westminster; the Knights of the Shires and the Commons (or representatives of Cities and Boroughs) in the "Painted Chamber." Thus the Knights of the Shire sat in a different room from the "Great Men." Four shillings a day was allowed to a Knight of the Shire; and two shillings to a citizen or burgess—paid by the places they represented.

(iv) "The new-born vigour and influence of the nation's representatives sprang, as has always been the case under similar circumstances, from the necessities of the king. His foreign wars demanded almost unlimited supplies of money. The king found by experience that he could not raise supplies without consent of Parliament. To obtain these he was forced to listen and yield to its demands, and thus, unwillingly, to increase its power."—LONGMAN. "No such impetus was given to the growth of Parliamentary power till there arose the similar necessities of William III. in his protracted struggle with Louis XIV."—COLVILLE.

(v) Of the Three Estates, the Commons grew most, and most rapidly, in power. At the beginning of the Hundred Years' War, the Commons was the weakest of the three; at the end of the war, it was the strongest.

18. Death of Edward, June 21, 1377.—Edward was lying sick to death at Sheen, a village near London, now called Richmond. His servants forsook him shortly before he died; and his favourite, Alice Perrers, made her reappearance only to strip the rings from his cold fingers and to desert him on his deathbed. Only one priest was with him when he died. His dear son, the Black Prince, had passed away a year before him.

"Mighty victor, mighty lord—
Low on his funeral couch he lies!
No pitying heart, no eye afford
A tear to grace his obsequies.
Is the sable warrior fled?
Thy son is gone. He rests among the dead." ¹

¹ Gray's Ode, "The Bard."

Edward III. was one of the greatest kings that ever sat upon the throne of England. He was, indeed, greater as a soldier than as a ruler ; but he did much for the rising prosperity of the English people. One great boon he bestowed upon them : from the date of 1362 it was enacted that all pleas in the courts "shall be pleaded, shewed, defended, answered, debated, and judged in the English tongue." Before that date pleadings had been carried on in French. This was indeed the greatest benefit that could be bestowed upon the nation, as it made justice surer and more speedy. Edward was remarkable for his skill in all chivalric and knightly exercises ; he delighted in tournaments, and usually took part in them disguised—so that no one should spare him. He made the power of England more feared and respected on the Continent than it had ever been before ; and his great victories elevated the position of the English peasant, for at Cressy and Poitiers it was proved that "bow and bill were more than a match for lance and shield."

19. Great Men.—This reign was fruitful in great and distinguished men. The **Black Prince**, the eldest son of Edward, commonly called Prince of Aquitaine and Wales, distinguished himself in the field, and later, in the parliamentary struggles with his brother **John of Gaunt**, the fourth son of Edward. Archbishop **John Stratford** stood up manfully against the king himself, and obliged him to give a practical acknowledgment of the clause in Magna Charta, which declares that a man must be tried and judged by his peers. **William of Wykeham**, the great Bishop of Winchester, an able Lord High Chancellor of England, and one of the greatest architects that England ever produced, is noteworthy, in the later part of this reign, as the steadfast and powerful opponent of the policy of John of Gaunt. **John Wycliffe**, "the first English Reformer, the Father of English Prose," stands out with great prominence at the end of the reign, as an opponent of the orders of Begging Friars, and a supporter of the great Duke of Lancaster. The Duke himself, better known as **John of Gaunt**, by his violent opposition to the influence of the Commons, marks with sufficient emphasis the fact of the growing power of the English Parliament. More enduring in fame than any of them, is **Geoffrey Chaucer**, the "Father of English Poetry," who in this and the following reign wrote poems and tales, which describe in the most vivid colours and musical language the everyday life of Mediæval England.

20. Social Facts.—The greatest social catastrophe in the fourteenth century—and perhaps the greatest that ever happened in England—was the result of the plague called the Black Death. Labour became so scarce, so dear, and so difficult to procure, that the serf became practically a free workman, and the Black Death proved to be the Emancipator of Labour. The tenure of land was altered also. Tenant-farmers paying a money-rent for their land took the place of the “customary tenants,” who were bound to labour for their lord, and who held their stock as well as their farm from him. The **manorial system** began to be broken up.—The clergy, on their side, had become unpopular. They had become very rich; they monopolised most of the offices of state; and many of them neglected their duties in the country to go to London to find a “fat chauntry,” or a lucrative post under Government. A strong party, headed by John of Gaunt, advocated the expulsion of the clergy from all secular offices (and there were now many laymen educated at the Universities, who could do this kind of work); another party, at the head of which was John Wycliffe, strove to bring back the purity and simplicity of the ancient times. Architecture of all kinds prospered greatly in this reign; and at the head of this art stood William of Wykeham, the founder of Winchester School, who rebuilt Windsor Castle for Edward III. The rise of the power of Parliament seems to be synchronous with the growth of the power of the English language. Up to this point, Kings, Barons, Prelates, and the “Great Men” generally, seem to have spoken French, and to have sometimes prided themselves on their ignorance of English. The year 1362 marks a great change in this respect; for from this time English, and not French, was ordered to be used in Courts of Law. The appointment of a **Speaker** by the Commons to represent them marks also a new departure; and we can see that new powers were stirring, new circumstances arising, and new aims held up for the attainment of political parties, in the course of this long reign.

English in
Courts of
Law.
1362.

(i) The **Manorial System**, or the division of the land into **Manors**, still existed in England at this time. “The manor was the unit of tenure under the feudal system.” The “Lord of the Manor” kept about half the soil in his own hands; a part was held by **Franklins** or **Freeholders**; and a part by **Villeins** or **Feudal Serfs**. The **Villeins** were bound to give so many days’ service, and to pay certain small dues—generally in kind. When the lord wished for ready money to go on a crusade, or to pay aids or reliefs,

he would exchange the services due for ready money; and this bargain was duly entered in the rent-roll of the manor, and a *copy* of the agreement given to the villein; who was hence called a *copyholder*.

Serfs tied to the soil, bought and sold with the land, were called *villeins regardant*; those that were personal slaves and might be sold at the will of their master, were *villeins en gros*.

(ii) A *chantry* was often a brotherhood or college founded by some wealthy person to have so many masses sung or *chanted* for his soul.

(iii) In 1332 Members of Parliament were forbidden to enter the City of London or its suburbs armed with swords, long knives, etc. On the other hand, little boys were forbidden to amuse themselves by knocking off the hats of passers-by in the neighbourhood of the Palace of Westminster.

(iv) The first Speaker of the Commons was Sir Thomas Hungerford; the second was Sir Peter de la Mare.

21. Scotland to 1371.—In the year 1329, David Bruce succeeded his father, Robert Bruce, under the title of **David II.** He was only five years old. Edward Balliol, the son of the deposed John Balliol, invaded Scotland along with a number of English Barons, who had been deprived of their Scotch estates; and defeated the Scottish Regent Mar at **Duplin**, in Perthshire. Edward was crowned at Scone; and the young King David fled to Paris.—In 1333, an English army was moved forward once more to attack Berwick; and the Scottish forces met it at **Halidon Hill**—a little to the west of the town. The Scottish army had to struggle slowly through the marsh behind which the English were posted, and were all this time exposed to the deadly skill of the English bowmen; and those who did not fall under the cloth-yard shaft were cut to pieces by the long swords of the men-at-arms. It was a butchery rather than a battle. In 1339 Edward III. invaded France; Edward Balliol returned to England; and, in 1341, David II. was free to re-appear in Scotland. He came back with his queen Johanna of England, daughter of Edward II., and sister of Edward III.—In the year 1346, when Edward was busy with the siege of Calais, the Scots began that policy which lasted several hundred years, of invading and harrying England while the English army was engaged in France. The two armies met at **Neville's Cross**, near Durham; the Scotch were once more defeated by the English bowmen; and David himself was taken prisoner. He was sent to London, and was only released in 1357, with a ransom of 100,000 marks, the payment of which was spread over twenty-five years. David II. died in the year 1371. He reigned forty-two years, though he was only forty-seven when he died.

(i) The king was anointed by the Bishop of St. Andrews, under the sanction of a special Bull from the Court of Rome. "It was the first instance in Scotland of anointing."

(ii) "The warlike renown of England almost recovered at Halidon Hill what it had lost at Bannockburn."—BURTON.

(iii) Shakespeare ("Henry V." i. 2) makes King Henry say :

For you shall read that my great-grandfather
Never went with his forces into France,
But that the Scot on his unfurnish'd kingdom
Came pouring like a tide into a breach.

(iv) In 1356, after the battle of Poitiers, John II. of France joined King David as prisoner in London.

(v) Throughout the correspondence with the Scotch Estates for the ransom of King David, he is always called in the English documents merely David de Bruce, while Edward Balliol is mentioned as King of Scots.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF EDWARD III.'S REIGN.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>1227. Edward III. proclaimed King.</p> <p>(a) Queen Isabella and Roger Mortimer the real rulers of England.</p> <p>(b) Edward II. murdered.</p> <p>1228. Independence of Scotland acknowledged.</p> <p>Edward III. marries Philippa of Hainault.</p> <p>1230. Edward arrests Mortimer.</p> <p>1232. Knights of the Shire deliberate apart from the barons.</p> <p>1233. Knights of the Shire sit apart with the representatives of cities and towns.</p> <p>Battle of HALIDON HILL.</p> <p>1237. Edward takes the title of King of France.</p> <p>Beginning of the Hundred Years' War.</p> <p>1240. (a) Battle of SLUYS.</p> <p>(b) Robert Bouchier is the first lay Chancellor.</p> <p>1241. The Archbishop of Canterbury claims that a Peer must be tried by his Peers.</p> <p>1246. Victory of Cressy.</p> <p>Battle of NEVILLE'S CROSS, in which the Scots are defeated.</p> | <p>1247. Calais surrenders.</p> <p>1249. The Black Death.</p> <p>The First Statute of Labourers.</p> <p>1256. Victory of Poitiers.</p> <p>John the Good, king of France, is taken.</p> <p>1260. The Great Peace.</p> <p>1262. The English Language to be used in our Courts of Law.</p> <p>1264. The French king dies at the Savoy Palace.</p> <p>1272. Capture of Earl of Pembroke by the Spaniards.</p> <p>1273. Tonnage and Poundage granted by Parliament for two years.</p> <p>1274. Loss of all English dominions in France, except Calais, Bordeaux, and Bayonne.</p> <p>1276. John of Gaunt at the head of affairs.</p> <p>1276. The Good Parliament.</p> <p>(a) Death of the Black Prince.</p> <p>(b) John of Gaunt comes back to power.</p> <p>1277. Edward III. dies.</p> <p>Wycliffe summoned to appear at St Paul's on a charge of heresy.</p> |
|--|---|

CHAPTER IV.

RICHARD THE SECOND

(OF BORDEAUX)

Born 1366. Succeeded (at the age of 11) in 1377. Died 1399.

Reigned 22 years.

RICHARD OF BORDEAUX was the eldest son of Edward the Black Prince, who was himself the eldest son of Edward III. He was born at Bordeaux April 13, 1366. He married in 1382, before he was sixteen years of age, Anne of Bohemia; and again, in 1396, Isabella of France. There were no children by either marriage. Richard was put to death in 1399.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

SCOTLAND: ROBERT II. 1371.

ROBERT III. 1390.

FRANCE: CHARLES V. 1364.

CHARLES VI. 1380.

1. Richard II. 1377-1399.—Richard II. was only eleven years of age when he began to reign. For eleven years more he was in a state of tutelage. The evils which generally attend a minority were intensified by war with France, by religious dissensions, by serious social troubles, by the intrigues and disputes of a violent and turbulent nobility, and by plots and treasons within the royal family itself. The French fleets were ravaging the southern coast; the Scottish armies were harrying the northern border; and the taxes which had been collected for national purposes were wasted, or stolen, or embezzled. This reign is filled with a popular rising; an impeachment of one political party by another; personal government on the part of Richard for eight years; the judicial murder of the Opposition Party; the assumption of absolute power by the king, followed by his downfall, deposition, and death.—To carry on the government during the minority of the king, a council was appointed; but not one of the king's four uncles had a seat on it.

(i) The Parliament might have chosen John of Gaunt as king. But he had shown himself unsuccessful in the French wars; he was personally disliked; and the modern ideas of inheritance had taken root.

(ii) The four uncles of Richard had been well provided for by their father Edward III. by marrying them to rich heiresses. This had the effect of concentrating large estates in the hands of the royal family—a procedure that might prove to be dangerous to the peace of the realm.

(iii) For the first time in the history of Parliament, the Commons demanded the right to inspect the Treasury Accounts. The Government was in such straits for money that they were obliged to accede to this demand.

(iv) During this reign, “we are walking in a labyrinth of family quarrels, accompanied with a more than usual amount of hatred and dissimulation.”

2. Condition of the Poorer Classes.—The plagues and famines and troubles of his grandfather's reign had been early preparing for Richard a harvest of annoyances and difficulties. The peasants, ground to the dust by hunger and galled by the yoke of villenage, began to compare their lot with that of the rich and comfortable, to talk at their village-meetings about their miserable and hopeless condition; and their feelings soon found a public mouthpiece in **John Ball**, a priest of Kent and a follower of Wycliffe. This man went up and down the east of England preaching from one of the familiar rhymes which then passed from mouth to mouth:

“When Adam delved and Eve span,
Where was then the gentleman?”

He insisted upon the “equality” of mankind. On the other hand, the Parliament was constantly striving to thrust the labourer down into a deeper bondage—to make him more and more of a serf, and to prevent him from rising one inch from the soil. The fuel of discontent was ready in large quantities, and in a high state of inflammability, when a poll-tax,¹ to be levied on every man, woman, and young person above fifteen throughout the realm, was voted by Parliament. This was a tax of three groats,² a sum equal to fifteen shillings in the present day; and it was raised to pay for war expenses by land and by sea. The poor man had to pay just as much as the wealthy; and the wealthiest man had to pay no more. The gross injustice of this unheard-of exaction set England on fire from sea to sea. To add to the soreness and the indignation of the poor, this abominable tax had been farmed out to some foreign merchants;

¹ A tax upon *persons*, per *head* or *poll*. So a tree with its chief branches cut off is called a *pollard*.

² A form of *great*. A groat was originally a big or *silver* penny.

and the collectors and agents of these men conducted themselves with the greatest brutality and insolence. One of them insulted a daughter of Walter, a tiler at Dartford, in Kent; and the tiler killed him on the spot with one blow of his hammer.

(i) In 1379, a graduated **poll-tax**, proportionate to the wealth of the persons taxed, was imposed. John of Gaunt, or an archbishop, paid £6, 13s. 4d., and a labourer, 4d. The new tax of three groats was an ungraduated poll-tax; and it fell with terrible severity on the heads of the very poor. The state of England was very similar to the state of France during the **Jacquerie**.

(ii) "It was a tax of three groats on every person of the kingdom, male or female, of the age of fifteen, of what state or condition soever, except beggars; the sufficient people in every town to contribute to the assistance of the less able, so as none paid above sixty groats, including himself and his wife." But the "sufficient" found it hard enough to pay for themselves and their families; and the "less able" took to insurrection.

(iii) The rising was called **Hurling-time**,—from *Hurling*—a game with clubs which still survives in Ireland.

3. The Rising of the Villeins, 1381.—This was the spark which lighted the fuel of insurrection. In the eastern counties generally, crowds of peasants met together armed with bills¹ and rusty swords, with long-bows and cross-bows. In Essex, their leader was a peasant who took the name of **Jack Straw**; in Kent, **Wat the Tyler**. One hundred thousand Kentish men marched upon London, killing every lawyer they could lay hands upon, firing the houses of the stewards, and burning the records² of the manor-courts. The young king and his great officers took refuge in the Tower, which was beset by one part of the mob. Other divisions of the peasants roamed through London, murdering tax-collectors, Flemings,³ and other foreigners, burning the palace of the Savoy—the residence of the Duke of Lancaster; but—with sterling English honesty—always forbearing to plunder. In the sack of the Savoy Palace, they ground to powder the gold and silver plate of the Duke; and when one man was seen to hide a silver vessel under his coat, he was hurled into the flames with his prize: "We be seekers for truth and justice," cried the poor men, "and not thieves or robbers." Next day, the young king, then only a boy of fifteen, went out to a conference with the peasants at Mile-End, in the east end of London. "I am your king and lord, good people," he said with boyish fearlessness, "what will

¹ A kind of long-headed axe. "Where bill-men ply the ghastly blow."—*Marmion*.

² Papers containing money-accounts or business-papers of the parish.

³ Immigrants from Flanders.

ye?" "We will that you free us for ever, us and our lands; and that we be no longer serfs." "I grant it," replied the king; and through the long summer day (it was the month of June) more than thirty clerks were hard at work writing letters of emancipation, with which the Essex men returned joyfully to their homes. Meanwhile the men of Kent had broken into the Tower, seized the Archbishop and the Treasurer and beheaded them upon Tower-Hill.

(i) "Some were armed with clubs, rusty swords, or axes, with old bows reddened by the smoke of the chimney-corner, and odd arrows with only one *feather*."

(ii) Richard promised the peasants that they should have charters under the Great Seal of the Realm, and a free pardon to all who had taken part in the rising. As after events showed, he was most probably only "dissembling as he ought," like his grandfather Edward III.

(iii) The Records of the Manor-Courts were burnt in order that there might be no written proof of the number and kind of services the "customary tenants" and villeins were bound to perform for their lords.

(iv) The demands of the peasants were: (a) a free pardon; (b) the abolition of serfdom; (c) the abolition of tolls and market-dues; (d) the conversion of "customary tenants" into perpetual leaseholders at 4d. an acre.

4. Dispersion of the Villeins.—The day after that, the men of Kent assembled in Smithfield; and the king went out to them, prepared to grant them the same franchises and pardons. But a quarrel arose between his train and the leader of the peasants, Wat Tyler; and, in the scuffle, William Walworth, the Mayor of London, stabbed Tyler with his dagger, and the royal squires leapt down from their horses and finished him as he lay upon the ground. The Kentish men bent their bows, when the king rode boldly to the front and cried, "What need ye, my masters? I will be your captain, follow me." And again he issued letters of freedom, and dismissed the peasants with content to their homes. But, though these charters had been granted, they had no legal force until Parliament had also given its consent. "And this consent we have never given, and never will give, were we all to die in one day," was the reply of the landowners. And now the reaction began. The military tenants of the Crown were summoned; the charters were revoked as extorted by force; and the king, with an army of 40,000 men, marched through Kent and Essex, torturing, hanging, drawing, and quartering the poor ignorant country people by hundreds and thousands. John Ball, Jack Straw, and hundreds of others were hanged in chains.

(i) The rioters had been much encouraged by the old soldiers, who told them stories of how the bow of the yeoman was more than a match for the sword of the knight.

(ii) The final result of the Rising was that it led the landlords to see that the peasants must be treated more like men ; most of them set free their villeins ; many accepted money payments instead of the customary services. In less than a hundred years, no bondsmen were left in England.

5. The Lords Appellant.—John of Gaunt had, in 1386, made an expedition into Spain, for the purpose of seizing on the crown of Castile, to which he made claim through his second wife, a daughter of Pedro the Cruel. The Chancellor of the kingdom at this time was Michael de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk. In Gaunt's absence, the king's friends and the Opposition, headed by the Duke of Gloucester, came to a more serious rupture than ever, over the question of peace or war. The king's friends were the **Peace Party** ; the followers of Gloucester formed the **War Party**. The Duke of Gloucester, the Earl of Warwick, the Earl of Arundel, and other nobles and bishops, **appealed** (or accused) five of the king's councillors of high treason, and were from this fact called the **Lords Appellant**. Finding that they could not carry their purposes, they took up arms, met the king's friends under De Vere, Duke of Ireland, at **Radcot Bridge** on the Thames, and defeated them. The year after, in 1388, the "**Merciless Parliament**" was summoned ; and the Lords Appellant again "appealed" the king's favourites. Four were condemned to death, and two of them hanged. And now the Duke of Gloucester was all-powerful.

(i) In the Parliament of 1386, at Westminster, Michael de la Pole was impeached ; and his dismissal demanded. The king told this Parliament to mind its own business. But Gloucester and Arundel most significantly sent for the Statute of Deposition of Edward II., and had it read publicly in Parliament. Richard yielded.

(ii) A **Council of Eleven** was appointed to regulate the Royal Household, the Treasury, etc. The friends of Gloucester formed the majority of this Council.

(iii) **Michael de la Pole** was the son of a merchant at Hull, who had lent Edward III. large sums of money.

6. Richard declares himself of age.—The misfortune of Richard was, that he was surrounded by powerful uncles, who intrigued against each other for the management of the kingdom and for power, and took not the least trouble to train the lad for his duties as king. Now it was the Duke of Lancaster who had the upper hand ; now it was the Duke of Gloucester. In 1388 it was the Duke of Gloucester ; and he had made a clean sweep of Richard's friends and favourites,

by banishment, by imprisoning, or by beheading. Richard never forgave him. On the morning of the 3d of May 1389, the king entered the Council-room and smilingly inquired of the duke if he knew how old he was. "Your highness," replied Gloucester, "is now twenty-three." "Then am I old enough, fair uncle," the king said, "to manage my own affairs. I have been longer under guardianship than any ward in my realm; and I must now try to govern without your help." And with that word, the rule and power of the duke were gone. The king removed Arundel from the Chancery, handed the Great Seal to William of Wykeham, and turned the Lords Appellant out of their offices.

7. The Lollards.—There had been for a long time in England a party, consisting both of churchmen and laymen, who were dissatisfied with the increasing wealth and luxury of the English Church. The chief literary voice of this party was John Wycliffe. The followers of Wycliffe were called "Hooded Men," and also **Lollards** by the friars and their other opponents; and this name of Lollards stuck to them in this and in the following reign. Lollardism grew gradually to be employed as a term to include every shade of dissatisfaction with the Church—with its doctrines, with the conduct and character of ecclesiastics, with the corruption that was creeping into it from its growing wealth and luxury. Queen Anne is said to have favoured the Lollards, and to have read with interest the pamphlets and other writings of Wycliffe. But the Archbishop of Canterbury summoned that Reformer and his friend Nicholas of Hereford to answer for their beliefs and statements; and a statute was passed against heretic preachers. But Lollardism was not put down; it continued to grow and to create fear in the minds of monks and bishops; and we shall find it, in the next reign, a strong political force that has to be reckoned with.

8. Richard's Government.—For eight years Richard is said to have managed the affairs of the country with care, wisdom, and success. He had married a German princess, who, from her kindly and constant desire to heal the quarrels of the nobles of her husband's court, had received the name of the "Good Queen Anne." On her death, Richard endeavoured to make peace with France by marrying Isabella, the daughter of Charles vi. He also made a truce with

the French king for twenty-five years. Gloucester was opposed to this peace policy ; but, by a bold stroke of treachery, Richard, in 1397, obtained possession of Gloucester's person, hurried him off to Calais, and had him put to death in the castle there. The Archbishop of Canterbury, a confederate of the duke's, was banished ; and, fleeing to France, he became there the mainspring of the revolution which not long after hurled Richard from the throne. "Richard had thus destroyed his old enemies, rid himself of the constraint of Parliament, and was practically despotic. 'Then the king began to rule,' says Froissart, 'more fiercely than before. In those days there were none so great in England that durst speak against anything that the king did. He had Council meet for his appetite, who exhorted him to do what he list. He still kept in his wages 10,000 archers. He thus kept greater state than ever ; no former king had ever kept so much as he did by 100,000 nobles a year.'" But, as is always the case, Richard was himself the main instrument of his own ruin. He had conducted himself with moderation since 1389 ; there had been no plots against him ; and his rule had been the rule of a constitutional king. But with the French marriage came a great change.

(i) *Anne* was the eldest daughter of Charles iv., Emperor of Germany. She died of the Plague at Shene (Richmond) in 1394. Richard was out of his senses with grief. He had the palace in which she died torn down ; he drew his sword on Arundel for keeping the funeral waiting ; and ordered a gorgeous tomb to be erected for her in Westminster Abbey. She is said to have greatly favoured the *Lollards*.

(ii) Richard's chief purpose for marrying *Isabella* was to get the help of Charles vi. to crush all opposition in England. The French Ambassador said to him : "Ye shall then be of puissance to oppress all rebels ; for the French king, if need be, shall aid you : of this ye may be sure." King Richard answered, "Thus shall I do."

9. Absolute Rule, 1397.—Richard began to try to rule without parliament—in one word, to make himself an absolute monarch. He induced the Parliament of 1398 (which met at Shrewsbury) to grant him the taxes upon wool—by far the richest taxes in the country—for the term of his life ; he had a committee of ten nobles, two bishops and six commoners appointed, whose decrees were to be as binding as the statutes of Parliament itself ; and he forced every tenant of the Crown to accept their decrees as always and in all circumstances valid. And now the king was nearly absolute, and could do pretty much as he liked. So he began to raise forced loans ;¹ he put seven-

¹ He even compelled some rich persons to give him blank cheques, which his treasurer filled in as he pleased.

teen counties into outlawry ; and he interfered everywhere with the independence of the judges. In the earlier part of his reign he had disgusted the nobles by his peace policy, the merchants by his extortionate exactions, and the Church by his protection of the Lollards ; and these three classes fell away from him, and looked upon his proceedings with detestation and contempt. And now, in 1398, Richard stood almost alone in his kingdom.

(i) The Parliament of Shrewsbury (a) annulled the acts of the Merciless Parliament ; (b) granted to the king *for life* the taxes on wool, woolfells, and leather ; (c) and handed over its authority to a Board of Eighteen. Richard had thus more power than any English king had ever before been intrusted with. Pope Boniface gave his blessing to these acts and declared them *irrepealable*.

(ii) "The Statute of the 21st year of Richard II., 1397, is a solemn record of the establishment of a despotic power, under the sanction of Parliamentary forms." "When he was asked to do justice according to the laws, he would say that 'the laws were in his breast ;' and that the life, lands, and goods of every one of his subjects were at his will and pleasure."

(iii) The king's bodyguard consisted of 10,000 Welsh archers ; and, with this powerful body, he thought he was strong enough to defy every power. "Sleep in peace, Dickon," was their song, "we'll take care of thee !"

10. Henry of Hereford.—Alone as he was, Richard might have continued to stand, had he not set the powerful House of Lancaster against him by an act of the grossest bad faith and tyranny. Henry, Earl of Derby and Duke of Hereford, the eldest surviving son of John of Gaunt, had always been a supporter of Richard in his struggles with the Duke of Gloucester ; but Richard had never been without a secret dread of the rising power of the great House of Lancaster, of which Henry was the head. A dispute had arisen between Hereford and the Duke of Norfolk ; and the quarrel—as was not unusual in those days—was referred to the trial by arms. The wager of battle was appointed to take place at Coventry. The two dukes are mounted ; their beavers are closed, their lances in rest ; and they only await the blast of the trumpet to close in mortal fight, when the king gives a signal to stop the combat, and banishes Hereford for ten years, and Norfolk for life. Henry retired to France, and spent his time there in devising schemes, along with Archbishop Arundel, for the recovery of his property and titles, and for a great deal more. The king further took advantage of a base quibble to

forfeit the Lancaster estates, which had been left to Henry by his father, John of Gaunt, who died during Hereford's exile abroad.

11. Richard in Ireland, 1399.—Richard had, in the earlier part of his reign, visited Ireland, and reduced the petty kings to peace by sharp and swift measures in a vigorous campaign. But his cousin, the Earl of March, the next heir to the crown—as Richard had no children—had been killed in Ireland in a petty skirmish the year before (1398); and Richard determined to visit the island to avenge this wrong and to settle other matters of State. But this unlucky expedition cost him his crown. Henry, who was now Duke of Lancaster, hearing of his absence, landed at Ravenspur,¹ in Yorkshire, with a handful of men; the great Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland—the Percies and the Nevilles—at once joined him; the Duke of York, his uncle, who had been left as Regent of the kingdom, was false to Richard; and Henry, meeting no opposition, had only to march straight to London.

12. Richard's Return.—No news reached Richard for a whole fortnight after; and when he had crossed and anchored in Milford Haven, the crown was gone and the kingdom lost. Upon landing, most of his troops deserted him; and his steward, the Earl of Worcester—the brother of Northumberland—broke his wand of office in Richard's presence, and declared the royal household dismissed. The king himself was betrayed into the hands of the Duke of Lancaster at Flint. "I am come before my time," said the duke, with grim politeness, "but I will show you the reason. Your people, Sir King, complain that for twenty years you have ruled them harshly; but, please God, I will now help you to rule them better." "Fair cousin," replied the king, "since it pleases you, it pleases me also well." Henry brought Richard to London, the citizens of which received him with hootings and groans, while Hereford was applauded to the echo, called a Parliament, read to them a paper in which Richard renounced the throne; and the Archbishops of Canterbury and York led Henry Bolingbroke of Lancaster to the throne amidst the shouts and acclamations of all present. The Three Estates—clergy, nobility, and commons—agreed, jointly and severally, to accept him as their king.

¹ There is no such place now; the sea has encroached upon it and swallowed it up. Compare this with the Goodwin Sands in Kent.

(i) Richard was, in the early part of his reign, very popular with the Londoners. But, in 1391, he had asked them for the loan of £1000; they refused; and from that time ill-feeling existed between them. Hereford, on the contrary, was extremely popular, not only in London, but wherever he was known in England. Shakespeare, in his play of *Richard II.* (v. 2. 3) says:—

“—All tongues cried, ‘God save thee, Bolingbroke!’
 You would have thought the very windows spake,
 So many greedy looks of young and old
 Through casements darted their desiring eyes
 Upon his visage; and that all the walls,
 With painted imagery, had said at once—
 ‘Jesu preserve thee! welcome, Bolingbroke!’
 Whilst he, from one side to the other turning,
 Bareheaded, lower than his proud steed’s neck,
 Bespake them thus: ‘I thank you, countrymen’;
 And thus still doing, thus he pass’d along.”

(ii) The heir-apparent to the throne, Roger Mortimer, Earl of March, the grandson of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, had been killed in Ireland in the year 1398. (This young man was the great-great-grandson of the Roger Mortimer who was executed in 1330. His mother, Philippa, had married Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March.) At the same time, Parliament had, by electing Henry iv., broken through the custom of succession, as there were nearer heirs to the throne—descendants of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, the third son of Edward iii. This change afterwards bore fruit in the long faction fight called the “Wars of the Roses.”

13. Death and Character of Richard.—Richard was ordered by Parliament to be “kept secretly in safe ward.” He was, like Edward ii., moved about from castle to castle, and his last place of abode was Pontefract¹ Castle, where he was probably murdered by his keeper. Richard was the handsomest man of his time, and not without a share of the great ability of the Plantagenets. But he was idle and luxurious in his habits, dissipated, fond of display (he spent three millions of money on his marriage), and proud and violent in temper. He had in him, unequally mixed, the elements both of an energetic tyrant and of a weak voluptuary, with a dulled sense of right, in which no one could trust. His advisers pressed upon him a peace policy, because they saw that the wars of the late king had drained the country of money, and Richard’s too easy compliance with this policy, joined to his love of arbitrary power, cost him his throne and his life. Richard’s reign appears dull and uneventful compared with the brilliant period of Edward iii.; but the brilliance of Edward was a superficial brilliance, for the country was drained of

¹ Pronounced *Pomfret*.

men and money to conquer lands which it could not keep ; while in Richard's time the country was making long strides towards freedom and prosperity. The parallel between Richard II. and Edward II. is a very striking one. There were the same weakness of character, the same mistakes in government, and the same sad mysterious end.

14. The Work of Parliament.—There is no doubt but that Parliament added considerably to its strength during this reign. This is sufficiently proved by the single fact of Sir Thomas Haxey having brought forward in 1397 a vote of censure on the king and court. It is true that he was tried, condemned, and afterwards pardoned ; but, unless Parliament had gained in power, no such motion could ever have been offered for its acceptance. Even as early as 1386 the Commons had petitioned the king “that the state of his household might be looked into and examined every year.” The king, whose household at that time consisted of ten thousand persons (with three hundred of these in his kitchen), was strong enough at that time to refuse compliance. The **Statute of Provisors** was finally re-enacted in 1392. The Popes had cleverly evaded this law by presenting their own friends to benefices which happened to fall vacant at Rome. Now the best benefices fell vacant there ; as the Cardinals were generally at Rome when they died. The **Statute of Mortmain** had also to be re-enacted in 1391 ; and the great **Statute of Praemunire** in 1393. Parliament also passed a **Second Statute of Labourers** chiefly for the purpose of keeping down the growing tendency of many of the villeins to fall into the condition of mendicancy ; and the **First Navigation Act** to regulate the commerce of the country.

(i) This re-enactment of the **Statute of Praemunire** prohibited any one from bringing a Papal Bull into the country, on penalty of forfeiture of lands and all personal property, and of imprisonment during the Royal pleasure.

(ii) The **Second Statute of Labourers** forbade agricultural labourers to change their occupation after twelve years of age, or to leave their village without the king's permission, and provided for the punishment of able-bodied mendicants (or “sturdy beggars”).

(iii) The **Navigation Act** required merchandise to be imported and exported in English ships only.

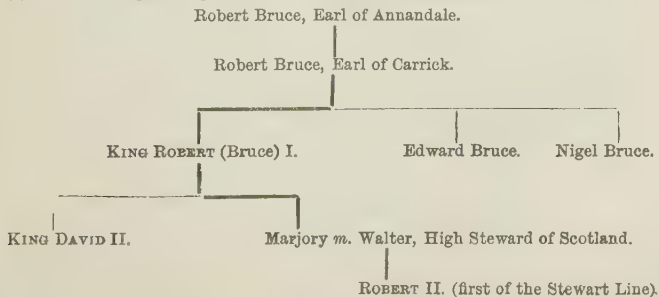
15. Great Men.—The two most distinguished political actors in this reign were John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, and his son Henry Bolingbroke, Duke of Hereford,—the former in the beginning, the latter

at the close, of Richard's rule. As the head of the War Party, **Thomas, Duke of Gloucester**, stands out prominently ; while **De Vere**, Duke of Ireland, and **Neville**, Archbishop of York, are the most distinguished leaders of the party of Peace. In ecclesiastical politics, **John Wycliffe** is the most remarkable character ; while, in the field of social reform and agitation, **Wat Tyler** is the most conspicuous. In literature, by far the greatest name is **Geoffrey Chaucer**, who immortalised the Middle Ages in England by his "Canterbury Tales."

16. Social Facts.—Commerce advanced, during the reign of Richard II., by great strides. Wealthy trades banded themselves in guilds or leagues, and received charters of incorporation ; and from this reign dates the rise of strong bodies in London like those of the Leather-sellers, the Fishmongers, the Mercers, and the Salters. Winchester School and New College, Oxford, were founded and built by the great architect William of Wykeham, bishop of Winchester.

17. Scotland to 1390.—David II. left no children, and was succeeded by his nephew **Robert, the High Steward**. He took the title of **Robert II.**, and was the first of the **Stewart Line** of Scottish kings. No event of great importance occurred in Scotland during his reign ; but the bonds of friendship between Scotland and France were drawn still closer, and the usual harrying of the English border took place whenever an occasion presented itself. Richard II. led an army of 70,000 men against Scotland ; the Scotch met it with a force of 30,000 Scotch and French : but no fighting ensued. Richard returned to England after plundering Melrose Abbey. Robert II. died in 1390.

(1) The following Table gives the beginning of the **Stewart Line** :—



(ii) The original family name of the Stewarts was **Alan** or **Fitzalan**. This family had long held the hereditary office of **High Steward**, and hence they came to be known by the name *Steward*, or, as it was spoken and written in Scotland, *Stewart*.

The spelling *Stuart* is the French spelling, and was not common till the time of Charles II. The French language has no *u*, and hence had to write the name with a *u*.

(iii) In one of the numerous raids upon England, the **Battle of Otterburn** was fought in Northumberland between Douglas and Harry Hotspur. Douglas took Hotspur and his brother, Ralph Percy, prisoners. This battle—"the greatest and bloodiest tournament on record"—is described, with imaginative exaggerations, in the "Ballad of Chevy Chase."

"The stout Earl of Northumberland a vow to God did make,
His pleasure in the Scottish woods three summer days to take,
The chiefest harts in Chevy Chase to kill and bear away,
These tidings to Earl Douglas came, in Scotland where he lay."

But it was the Scotch who invaded Northumberland.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF RICHARD II.'s REIGN.

- | | |
|--|--|
| <p>1377. Richard II. succeeds to the throne.</p> <p>(a) Peter de la Mare, Speaker of the "Good Parliament" is made Speaker of Richard's first Parliament.</p> <p>(b) The Commons claim the right to see the Treasury Accounts.</p> <p>1380. Ungraduated poll-tax of three groats.</p> <p>1381. Rising of the Villeins (Wat the Tyler).</p> <p>(a) Richard satisfies the rioters.</p> <p>(b) Richard breaks his promises.</p> <p>(c) Villenage comes to an end.</p> <p>1384. Death of Wycliffe.</p> <p>1386. Council of Eleven appointed to regulate the royal household and the kingdom.</p> <p>1387. Defeat of the king's party at Radcot Bridge.</p> <p>1388. The Marvellous (or Merciless) Parliament.</p> <p>1389. Richard takes the government into his own hands.</p> <p>(a) Good rule for eight years.</p> <p>(b) The Commons petition that the Chancellor may not make laws after Parliament has closed.</p> | <p>1396. Richard marries Isabella of France.</p> <p>1397. Interference by the king with freedom of debate.</p> <p>(a) Sir Thomas Haxey brings in a bill of Censure on the Court.</p> <p>(b) The Commons are obliged to give up his name.</p> <p>(c) He is imprisoned.</p> <p>1398. The Shrewsbury Parliament.</p> <p>(a) Richard becomes virtually absolute.</p> <p>(b) Richard banishes the Dukes of Hereford and Norfolk.</p> <p>1399. Death of John of Gaunt.</p> <p>(a) Richard seizes his lands.</p> <p>(b) Richard goes to Ireland.</p> <p>(c) Lancaster lands at Ravenspur.</p> <p>(d) Richard returns from Ireland and is entrapped.</p> <p>(e) Richard resigns the crown.</p> |
|--|--|

CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.

- | | |
|--|--|
| <p>1380. Charles VI. of France succeeds.</p> <p>1386. Battle of Sempach (Switzerland).</p> | <p>1390. Robert III. of Scotland succeeds.</p> <p>1396. Battle of Nicopolis.</p> |
|--|--|

ENGLAND IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

1. Revolution.—The Fourteenth Century was a period of revolution. It saw not only the two political revolutions which consisted in the depositions of Edward II. and Richard II., it saw also the beginnings of great changes in the Church and in the Social Condition of the English people. During the thirteenth century, the higher prelates of the Church had been distinguished rather as political than as social leaders; and the religious corporations of the regular clergy had been growing more and more into mere societies of landowners, whose wealth increased every year, but who took as small a share as they could of the burdens of the State. The parish priests were often ignorant; some of them did not reside in their parishes; while others were described as “threadbare, learned, and devout.” The coming of the Friars to England in the early part of the thirteenth century produced many changes for the better. These men gave up their lives to the service of the poor; they lived on the meanest fare; and they fought day and night with fever, leprosy, the plague, and other forms of disease. Towards the end of the fourteenth century, however, much of their zeal had waned; their self-importance and self-indulgence had increased; and many of them had become merely “impudent beggars.” The appearance of **John Wycliffe** as a reformer hastened some of the changes in doctrine and organisation that had been going on; and his translation of the Bible into English became a powerful factor in the moulding of religious thought.—Villainage or serfdom began to show signs of breaking up. The Church used its influence, especially at the deathbed of a landowner, in freeing serfs; fugitive serfs became free by finding refuge in the chartered towns, and staying away from their lord for a year and a day; and the Black Death of 1349 dealt the heaviest blow that could possibly be inflicted on slave-labour. More than half the population was swept away—it fell from four to two millions; wages were doubled; and prices rose enormously. The free labourers, or “landless men,” as they were called, saw that they were masters of the labour-market; many of them raised their demands as they pleased; others refused to work at all, and joined the crowded ranks of the “sturdy beggars,” who roamed at their own sweet will over all parts of the country. In spite of the Statute of Labourers, the value of work rose; and the poor were better paid than in the thirteenth century, and therefore better fed and better clad. Still much misery prevailed; and this

misery culminated in the Revolt of the Peasants at the accession of Richard II.

2. Trade.—The trade of England was very small. There was not much to sell—except wool; there was not much money to buy from other countries; and the seas swarmed with pirates. The export trade was a trade in raw materials—chiefly wool and wool-fells (or sheepskins). The imports were wine, fine cloth, linens, and spices. Most of the foreign merchants were Germans; and they were formed into a guild called “Merchants of the Steelyard.” Flanders became more and more of a commercial country during this century; the great Flemish towns or “free cities” grew into great standing markets or perpetual fairs; and the commerce of England with Flanders increased with immense rapidity. But the heavy duties (“maletolte”) on wool—sometimes rising to forty per cent.—greatly crippled the commerce of the country.

(i) In the year 1354, the total value of the exports was £212,338. They consisted of wool, wool-fells, hides, cloth, and worsteds. The imports amounted to only £23,000. These consisted of fine cloth, wax, wine, linens, and groceries. (These sums cannot of course give any idea of the *purchasing power* of money. The usual estimate is that £1 in the Fourteenth Century went as far as £15 to-day.)

(ii) Let us compare this with the imports and exports of 1903. The imports for that year amounted to nearly £543,000,000. The exports to over £360,000,000.

3. Agriculture.—The effect of the Black Death was, as we have seen, to raise very greatly the price of labour. One immediate effect of this rise in wages was to make ploughing and tilling too costly; and the consequence of this was to throw a great deal of land out of cultivation, and to turn it into pasturage. Land had become so cheap that much of it could be bought for ten years' purchase. The old average of wages for reapers was 5½d. an acre; but this average very soon reached 10d.—or nearly double the old wages. The price of other labour rose in nearly the same proportion: a mason who got 6d. a day in the thirteenth century now received 10d. An ox sold for 8s. 6d.; but a sheep fetched only 1s. 6d.—the large number of sheep keeping the price of mutton down.

4. Architecture.—The Fourteenth Century is the period of Decorated Gothic. The construction is no longer simple, but adorned and moulded in the richest and most elaborate fashion—with carved flowers, delicate leafwork, and curling sprays. Parts of Exeter Cathedral, the west windows of York Minster, and Durham Cathedral are striking specimens of this style.

5. Manners and Customs.—In spite of the Black Death, wars, heavy taxes, and other troubles, Englishmen were not dull or depressed

in the fourteenth century. Indeed, this century, of all the periods in the Middle Ages, was the time when our country best deserved the title of "Merry England." There were all kinds of feasts, festivals, and merry-makings:—Saints' days, wakes, fairs, royal pageants, processions, city banquets, Yule-tide feasts, May-day dances, and other opportunities for jollity and merriment. The members of the craft-guilds, and also the clergy, gave gratis representations of dramas, the subjects of which were generally taken from the Old or the New Testament. These representations lasted several days, and were given in the open air. Even pilgrimages were for the most part only picnics or pleasure-parties. The company that gathered at the Tabard Inn in Southwark, and which has been so vividly described by Chaucer in his "Prologue to the Canterbury Tales," was not a company of ascetics, but a society full of eager life, high animal spirits, and the strongest appreciation of fun and humour. They were bound for the shrine of the most famous saint in the country "St. Thomas of England"—the "holy blissful martyr"; and, as they rode along the green-turfed lanes, which then served for roads, to Canterbury, they lightened the possible tedium of the way with quips and cranks and jokes and stories. There were many other shrines to which the travelling pilgrims were just as jolly:—Our Lady of Walsingham (which Erasmus describes); the North Door of St. Paul's; the tombs of St. Cuthbert of Durham, of St. Edmund at Edmundsbury, and of St. Edward the Confessor at Westminster.

(i) These **Mystery-Plays** are still given at Ammergau in Bavaria, in Mexico, and in other Roman Catholic countries. In Mexico, the actor who takes the part of Judas has a very high salary, and is escorted to and from the theatre by a guard of soldiers, lest he should be stoned to death by the people.

(ii) The **Tabard Inn** in Southwark was a favourite rendezvous for those who wished to go on pilgrimage to the shrine of St. Thomas of England. The Inn was only pulled down in the year 1887.

(a) A *tabard* is a herald's coat without sleeves. It formed the "sign" of the Inn.

(b) The word *canter* is said to come from the *Canterbury* amble—the pace preferred by pilgrims to Canterbury, as they rode along the green lanes which were at that time the county roads.

6. Houses, Furniture, etc.—The barons still lived in castles or in "crenelated mansions," which were in reality strong fortresses, walled in and embattled by licence from the Crown. The houses of the poorer classes, built often of mud, generally consisted of a "hall and bower"—that is, a public room for the whole family, and an inner room for the women and children. The furniture was rude enough, even in the houses of the wealthy. Beds, bedsteads, doublets and other articles of dress, were so expensive that they were handed down by will. A few stools, a chest, two or three metal pots

might be the whole of the furniture in a farm-house ; and on these "moveables" taxes might be levied. The shoes called "cracowys" had points so long—sometimes as much as half-a-yard—that they had to be attached by silver chains to the knee so as to enable the bearer to walk.—There was no regular system of scavenging in towns ; all kinds of filth got heaped up in corners and by-lanes ; the crows were the only scavengers ; and in this character they were never molested. There were no pavements ; and the streets were dimly and brokenly lighted by oil-lanterns drawn up by strings to the end of poles, or even hoisted on church-steeple and towers.—Food was consumed in large quantities, but badly cooked. At a Christmas feast of Richard II., 28 oxen, 300 sheep, besides countless numbers of fowls, were slaughtered daily. During the Church fasts, the coarsest fish were eaten—dog-fish, stock-fish, and conger-eels. Strong spices were largely used in cooking ; and wine was often drunk mixed with honey.

(i) Even as late as the seventeenth century, beds were mentioned in wills and handed down to certain favoured persons. Thus Shakespeare left in his will only his second-best bed to his wife Anne Hathaway.

(ii) "The wife of Simon de Montfort ate the tongue of a whale dressed with peas, and a porpoise dressed with frumenty, saffron, and sugar."

Cracowys=shoes from Cracow.

7. London.—The towns of England in the fourteenth century were not, as we see them now, enormous agglomerations of houses of the same height, build, and character, arranged in monotonous rows called streets, but rather like assemblages of pretty country-houses, each unlike the other, each with some characteristic note, each in its own little garden, and more like the clean rural suburb of a modern English town than like the town itself. If we take London as an example, we may be able to form some idea of an English town in the Middle Ages. It was not what it is now—a vast province covered with houses, and stretching its ever-growing arms into five counties, shrouded in smoke and filled with a never-ceasing roar of traffic from morning till night. In the first place, it was not one-fourth the size that it is at the present day : it was no larger than Norwich. Moors and heaths lay round it on the north ; fair meadows looked in on it from other sides ; green lanes and short streets, almost noiseless, divided houses in shady gardens from each other, where the song of birds rang out clear and mirthful. The Londoners were very fond of the hawthorn ; and, in the month of May, the streets were full of the smell and the sight of red and white may-blossoms. This was

London, small, and white, and clean ;

The clear Thames bordered by its gardens green.

Nor were the streets filled with crowds of people dressed in black or in dull neutral hues ; the brightest colours lighted up the view—

bright reds, murrey, white, blue, green, and brown ; and the dress of every man seemed to be different from the dress of every other, for the dress was distinctive of the rank, profession, or birth of each.

8. Language.—The end of the Fourteenth Century is the period in the history of our language which marks the highest degree of saturation of the English tongue with French words. Of the three main dialects of English—**Northern**, **Southern**, and **Midland**, the one which had conquered literature for its own was the **East Midland Dialect**. The Southern dialect had ceased to be employed in books, the Northern dialect became the language of Scottish poets ; but the East Midland Dialect became the **King's English**, and it is from this dialect that our modern English has descended. This was the dialect in which Geoffrey Chaucer wrote his “*Canterbury Tales*” ; in the mouths of the courtly classes it became saturated with French words ; and Chaucer, who was himself of Norman-French descent, employed this highly Francised English with infinite skill and true perception. This English of the fourteenth century had lost the larger number of its inflections, and was hence much easier to handle by a writer in verse. Verbs, however, still retained their plurals and their infinitives in *en*, and the words *wenten*, *holden*, *tellen*, etc., helped to make the verse more musical and the rhythm more flowing. The saturation of English with French is seen in those double phrases, one member of which is pure English while the other is Norman-French, such as *aid and abet*, *will and testament*, *acknowledge and confess*, *humble and lowly*, and many others with which not only Chaucer, but the English Prayer-Book, abounds. For about three centuries, the Norman-French lords and the English people had been in the habit of tacking on English words to their French, or French words to their English, until the language had thoroughly acquired the habit of running its words in couples.

(i) It is worthy of note that though several thousand French words found and kept a place in our English speech, not a single French idiom has been able to hold its ground. Chaucer has such idioms as “*I n'am but dead ;*” but this and every other French idiom has entirely disappeared.

(ii) The chief grammatical distinction between the dialects is that the **Northern** has *es* for the plural of verbs ; the **Midland**, *en* ; and the **Southern**, *eth*. There were also, of course, differences in the spelling. The sentence “*We stand singing*” would appear thus :

NORTHERN.	MIDLAND.	SOUTHERN.
We standes singande.	We standen singende.	We standeth singinde.

(iii) It was natural and to be expected that the Midland Dialect should overcome the others. (a) The Northerner would find it hard to understand the Southern Dialect ; but both Northerner and Southerner could understand the Midland Dialect, on which they bordered. (b) The Royal Court often resided in the Midlands ; and Parliament met at Leicester, Norwich, and other towns oftener than at London.

(iv) Professor Earle calls this phenomenon **bilingualism** ; and says that this habit of tacking together English and French words served the purposes of a living dictionary.

9. Literature.—The Fourteenth Century was a period of great activity in literature. Most of this literature was written in the native English speech ; for, though the descendants of the Normans still continued to speak French, they understood English better, and found it easier to read English poems and English stories than stories and poems written in French. Among the poets of the century, by far the most distinguished is **Geoffrey Chaucer** (1340-1400). A page in the household of Lionel, Duke of Clarence (the third son of Edward III., and brother of the Black Prince), a soldier in France and a prisoner there, an ambassador to France and to Italy, Comptroller of Customs, Knight of the Shire for Kent,—he had mixed with all sorts and conditions of men, and was on friendly and human terms with the highest as well as with the lowest. He had thus the most varied experience ; and his poems are the best, brightest, and most vivid expression—the truest picture of English social life in the Middle Ages. His poetry and his forms of verse were much influenced by Italian and by French writers ; but, in feeling, his work is throughout genuinely English. His broad common-sense, his manliness, his true and acute but always kindly perception of the different phases of human life, his mirthfulness and humour, his joy in country-life, and his power of story-telling, have all combined to make him one of the greatest and most attractive writers in the English language. His most important work is the **Canterbury Tales**.—Another poet of the time, though belonging to a much inferior class, was **John Gower** (1330-1402), who wrote three long and tedious poems, one in English, one in French, and one in Latin.—Of prose-writers, by far the most important are **John Wycliffe** (1324-1384), who wrote several important pamphlets on Church matters, and translated the Bible into English ; **John de Trevisa**, who produced an English translation of Ralph Higden's *Polychronicon* (Universal History) ; and **Sir John Mandeville** (1300-1371), who wrote his travels in the East, first in Latin, then in French, and lastly in English.—Among Scotchmen, who wrote in "Scotch" or Northern English, the most distinguished writer is **John Barbour**, Archdeacon of Aberdeen, who wrote a heroic poem called "The Bruce."

(i) **William Langlande** (1332-1400) was the poet of the English part, as Chaucer was of the Norman part, of the people. His poem is called the "Vision of Piers the Plowman" ; and it is written in head-rhyme (alliterative rhyme), as Chaucer's is in end-rhyme.

(ii) Mandeville says that he "put this boke out of Latyn into Frensch, and translated it out of Frensch into Englyssch, that every man of my nacioun may understonde it."

PLAN OF DATES
FOURTEENTH CENTURY

1300	1301	1302	1303	1304
			Guienne restored to Edward I.	Stirling Castle surrendered
	Mandeville (to 1371).	Silver pennies coined.		

1310 Revolt of Barons. Appointment of Lords Ordainers.			The Desper The	
1311 Ordinances of Lords Ordainers ratified by Parliament.	1312 Thomas of Lancaster seizes Gaveston. Warwick executes Gaveston.	1313	1321	Battle of Lanc. executed. Comm.
1314 Battle of Bannockburn. Thomas of Lancaster head of the Government.	1315 Edward Bruce invades Ireland. Famine and high prices.	1316. First-fruits first collected in England.	1324 Roger Mortimer escapes to France. John Wycliffe (to 1384).	Queen Plots Commer
1317 Sweating sickness. Pope John XXII. keeps 18 bishops in his own hands for 17 years.	1318 Edward Bruce killed in Ireland.	1319	1327 Edward II. deposed. EDWARD III. Edward II. murdered.	Scottish reocon men North

1340 Battle of Sluys. Speaker of Commons chosen. (i) Inner and Middle Temple made Inns of Law. (ii) Robert Bouchier, first lay Chancellor.				
1341 The Archbishop of Canterbury demands that a peer be tried by his peers.	1342	1343	1351 First Statute of Provisors. Church livings not to be in the gift of Rome.	
1344	1345	1346 The Battle of Cressy. Battle of Neville's Cross.	1354	The B the
1347 Surrender of Calais.	1348	1349 The Black Death. First Statute of Labourers.	1357	Winch th The

1370 Massacre of Limoges.			Ungraduated Pol	
1371 Beginning of the STEWART LINE in Scotland.	1372 Pembroke defeated at Rochelle.	1373 Tonnage and poundage granted by Parliament for two years.	1381 Rising of the Villeins under Wat the Tyler, Jack Straw, etc. Virtual end of villenage.	
1374 Loss of all France, except Bordeaux, Bayonne, and Calais.	1375 48 sessions of Parliament were held in this reign. About 50 Merchant Guilds now existing.	1376 The Good Parliament. Death of Black Prince. John of Gaunt in power. Lords Latimer and Nevil impeached by the Commons. (First instance.)	1384 Death of Wycliffe.	Edi Virt
1377 Death of Edward III. RICHARD II. The Commons claim the right to see the Treasury accounts.	1378	1379 Graduated Poll Tax from 4d. to £6, 13s. 4d. New College, Oxford, founded.	1387 The Lords Appellant take up arms. Battle of Radcot Bridge.	Th

THE CENTURY

1305	1306	1307	1308	1309
Submission of Scottish nobles.	Bruce stabs Comyn. Bruce crowned at Scone. Gaveston banished. Coal prohibited in London. Pop. of England, 3,000,000.	Death of Edward I. EDWARD II. Gaveston recalled, made Earl of Cornwall.	Gaveston made Viceroy of Ireland. Edward II. marries Isabella of France.	The Pope leaves Rome and goes to Avignon. "The Babylonish Captivity."

into power. (c. 1402).		1330 The Queen and Mortimer arrested. Mortimer executed.		
Wharfedale, and	1323 Thirteen Years' Truce with Scotland.	1331 Flemings manufacture woollen cloth.	1332 Knights of the Shire and Burgesses sit apart from Bishops and Barons. Coats of mail and arms not to be worn in towns when and where Parliament is sitting.	1333 Battle of Halidon Hill. Surrender of Berwick.
are in the	1326 Isabella and Mortimer land at Orwell, in Suffolk. The Despensers executed.	1334 Tallage of one-fifteenth produces £28,000. (Last collection of this tax.)	1335 Edward and Balliol invade Scotland.	1336
France. Mortimer.	1329 Death of Robert Bruce. David Bruce (II.) succeeds.	1337 Edward claims the French Crown. Hundred Years' War. Peter's Pence discontinued.	1338	1339
th Venice.				
dependence Parliamentary Treaty of				

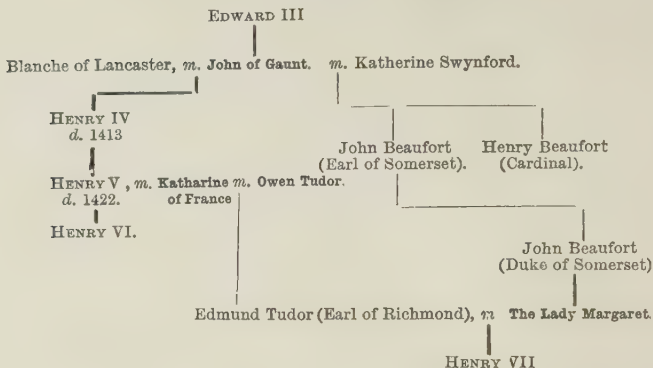
		1360 Treaty of Breigny. THE GREAT PEACE. King John's ransom=3,000,000 gold crowns.		
	1353 First Statute of Praemunire.	1361	1362 English to be the language used in the Law Courts.	1363 John goes to France to collect his ransom. Is unsuccessful. Returns to be a prisoner in London.
ravages France.	1356 Battle of Poitiers.	1364 John dies at the Savoy.	1365	1366
	1359	1367 Pedro the Cruel of Castile restored by the Black Prince.	1368	1369 War with France renewed.
royed by leet.				
France.				

ree groats per head.		1390 Woollen cloth first made in England.		
	1383 Wycliffe's Bible published.	1391 Statute of Mortmain re-enacted. Richard annuls the charter of London. (The city had refused to lend him £1000.)	1392	1393 The Great Statute of Praemunire. Mercers' Company formed.
ned.	1386 Parliament demands the dismissal of Ministers. Council of eleven to regulate Royal Household.	1394 The "Good Queen Anne" dies.	1395	1396 Richard marries Isabella of France. Truce with France for 28 years.
lage.	1389 Richard II. declares himself of age. The Commons petition that no changes be made in an Act of Parliament after Parliament has closed.	1397 Gloucester murdered at Calais. Children of Katherine Swynford (the Beauforts) legitimised. Richard II. interferes with freedom of debate (Harey's case).	1398 Henry of Hereford (Bolingbroke) banished for ten years. Parliament grants customs to Richard for life.	1399 John of Gaunt dies. His estates seized by Richard. Hereford returns. Deposition of Richard. HENRY IV.

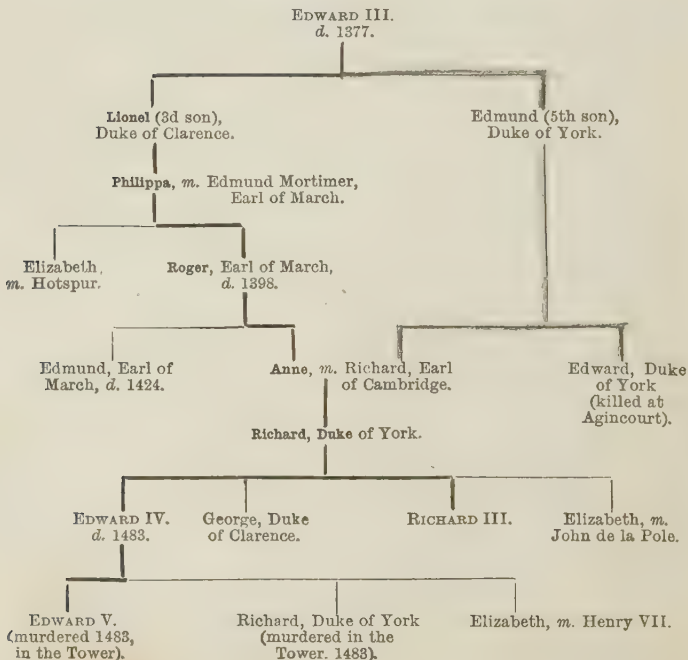
BOOK V

THE YORK AND LANCASTER KINGS.

THE LANCASTRIAN LINE.



THE YORKIST LINE.



CHAPTER I.

HENRY THE FOURTH

(OF BOLINGBROKE)

Born 1366. Succeeded (at the age of 33) in 1399. Died 1413.

Reigned 14 years.

HENRY PLANTAGENET (called also Henry of Bolingbroke, from the place of his birth in Lincolnshire) was the oldest surviving son of John of Gaunt (fourth son of Edward III.) and Blanche, the only child of the Duke of Lancaster. (Blanche was John of Gaunt's first wife.) His third wife was Katharine Swynford, whose children were the Beauforts, who were therefore half-brothers of Henry IV. Henry IV. was twice married : (i) in 1380, to Mary de Bohun, "the richest heiress in England;" and (ii) in 1403, to Joan of Navarre. By the first marriage he had four sons and two daughters. The sons were Henry V., Thomas (Duke of Clarence), John (Duke of Bedford), and Humphrey (Duke of Gloucester). As Earl of Derby, Henry IV. was one of the Lords Appellant, who took an active part against the king's friends, in the Merciless Parliament.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

SCOTLAND : ROBERT III.

FRANCE : CHARLES VI.

JAMES I.

1. Henry IV., his Claims.—Henry of Bolingbroke laid claim to the crown of England on three grounds : conquest, lineage, and election. He had conquered the country ; he was descended in the direct line from Henry III. ; and he had been elected King by the Parliament of England. It was the last of these reasons that was the most important. Henry held his crown from Parliament, and therefore Parliament was a body whose decisions he must respect. The poverty of the Crown—caused chiefly by the extravagance of Richard II.,—kept him in continual straits for want of money, and

therefore under the continual necessity to apply to Parliament for it ; while the plots, rebellions, and other difficulties of his reign, the open hostility of France, Scotland, and Wales, made him lean more and more every year on the advice and assistance of Parliament. Hence we shall see the powers of Parliament growing rapidly during this reign ; and we shall also see the House of Commons rise to a position which it did not again attain to for more than two centuries. Henry's chief aims were peace, cheap government, and the upholding of the Church.

(i) He founded his claim by descent on his relationship, not to Edward III., but to Henry III. This was done for the purpose of not being obliged to acknowledge the heirs of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, who was the third son of Edward III., while John of Gaunt (his father) was only the fourth.

(ii) Plots against Henry began the day he was crowned, and went on for nine years.

(iii) "Raised to the throne by a Parliamentary revolution, and resting its claims on a Parliamentary title, the House of Lancaster was precluded by its very position from any resumption of the last struggle for independence on the part of the Crown, which had culminated in the bold effort of Richard II. During no period of our early history were the powers of the two Houses so frankly recognised."—GREEN.

2. Henry IV. 1399-1413.—Henry had gained a throne and power ; but the throne was an unstable seat, the power had to be fought for almost every day of his life, and the story of his reign is a story of plots, intrigues, conspiracies and wars. Troubles without and troubles within kept his mind and his time constantly occupied ; and it is the most signal proof of his great ability that he could maintain his seat upon the throne at all. France and Scotland never acknowledged him as king during his whole life, and Wales was in open rebellion. With reason does Shakespeare make him say,

"Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown."

The true heir to the throne was **Edmund Mortimer**, the young Earl of March, and great-grandson of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, the third¹ son of Edward III. This person was a mere child, and was kept by Henry in "honourable confinement ;" but from his just claims sprang a war during Henry's own lifetime, and also, at a later period, the long and disastrous Wars of the Roses.

(i) The French—whose king, Charles VI., was insane—refused the title of King to Henry IV., and demanded back the little Queen Isabella and her dowry.

¹ John of Gaunt was only the fourth son.

(ii) The Scotch—whose king, Robert III., was also insane—refused homage to Henry. Henry marched as far north as Leith; but the Duke of Rothesay, the heir-apparent, held the Castle of Edinburgh. Henry, who did not wish to lay waste the country, beat a retreat for want of provisions.

(iii) The Earl of March was living at Windsor Castle.

3. Plots and Fears.—It was generally reported that Richard was still alive in Scotland, and Henry, to dispel this suspicion, had his body brought to London and exhibited for several days in St. Paul's. —The first conspiracy against Henry was formed by the Earls of Huntingdon and Kent, Richard's half-brother and nephew, who took up arms, but were utterly defeated at Cirencester. Numerous executions followed; the heads of the victims were sent to London, and were met by a procession of bishops, abbots, and priests, with the Archbishop of Canterbury at their head, chanting a *Te Deum* of thanksgiving for victory over their enemies. But no sooner was this rebellion suppressed than Henry had to face a much greater and more terrible danger. The Percies of Northumberland had been Henry's chief supporters against Richard, and to them, indeed, he owed his crown. They did not find him very grateful. Sir Edmund Mortimer, one of the Lords Marchers, and the uncle of the young Earl of March, had been taken prisoner by Owen Glendower, and Henry refused to allow his friends the Percies to ransom him. Nay, more, the Percies, who "kept" the borders against the Scots had defeated a Scottish army at Homildon Hill in 1402, and had made a large number of knights and nobles prisoners. The ransom¹ of prisoners was a great source of gain in those times, the price of each being regulated according to his rank, and the Percies looked to this as one means of paying their heavy war expenses. But Henry refused to allow them to ransom a single knight.

(i) "On the 12th of March 1400 a grand funeral was carried through the streets of London. A litter covered with black cloth, and a canopy of the same, were drawn by four black horses, and followed by four knights in mourning weeds. The procession moved at a foot's pace as far as Cheapside, where there was a halt for two hours; and all who would might come and look at the face of the dead man as it lay on the bier, the head soldered down on a black cushion, and the features uncovered from brow to throat, so that all might know the effeminate regularity and beauty that had characterised the unhappy Richard of Bordeaux. For two hours it lay on a bier in St. Paul's; and at least twenty thousand spectators came to look at the king they had so lately reviled."—YONGE.

¹ The word *ransom* is a shortened French form of the Latin word *redemption*, buying back.

(ii) The **Battle of Homildon Hill** was one of those victories won wholly by the English long-bowmen. Not a sword was drawn. "The Scottish host looked like a huge hedgehog bristled over with a thousand shafts whose feathers were red with blood."

(iii) The Earl of Northumberland and his son Harry Percy were **Wardens of the East and West Marches**.

(iv) Henry iv. was also in debt to the Percies to the amount of £20,000. The bad state of the finances and the hardness of the House of Commons made it difficult to pay this; and the Percies thought themselves very badly used

4. A Strange Alliance.—The Percies now formed a singular but strong alliance—an alliance with their chief prisoner, the Scotch Earl of Douglas, with Glendower, and with Sir Edmund Mortimer. Their object was to place Richard—if alive—upon the throne, or, failing him, the young Earl of March. Henry Percy (called Hotspur), with his uncle the Earl of Worcester, now marched west, with an army of 14,000, to join Glendower; but before a junction could be effected, Henry fell upon them near **Shrewsbury** and utterly defeated them. Hotspur fell in the front of the battle, and Worcester was taken and executed in 1403. The Earl of Northumberland escaped punishment by making plausible excuses, and was soon engaged in another revolt in 1405, along with Scrope, the Archbishop of York, who was executed for high treason. Glendower, however, having assumed the title of *Prince of Wales*, never yielded during the whole of Henry's reign, but kept up the war with varying success until his death in 1415.

(i) **Harry Percy** (or Hotspur) had married Elizabeth Mortimer, the sister of Sir Edmund.

(ii) The French had sent troops to Wales to help the insurgents.

(iii) Northumberland escaped to Scotland, where he lived for some years in exile. In 1408, he raised a small army in the north, but was met and defeated by the Sheriff of Yorkshire, at **Bramham Moor**, near Tadcaster.

5. France.—Henry had a firm hold over Scotland by his possession of James, the heir-apparent to the Scottish crown, and of Murdoch, the son of the Duke of Albany, who was then Regent of Scotland for his insane brother Robert III. On that side, therefore, he had no fears. On the side of France, he might feel equal confidence. The king, Charles VI., was insane; and the country was convulsed by the struggle between the Armagnacs and the Burgundians—the rival houses of Orleans and Burgundy. At one time

Henry helped the one party ; at another, the other ; and thus he made his weight felt everywhere in France. He intended to lead an army into France himself ; but the state of his health prevented this. He sent his second son, the Duke of Clarence, to lay waste Maine and Touraine, and to win back the old English possession of Aquitaine.

6. The Lollards.—To Henry iv. belongs the infamy of having been the first English king who put men to death by statute for their religious opinions. He had purchased the favour of the Church by promises and pledges in favour of orthodoxy ; and, when he had ascended the throne, the bishops demanded the fulfilment of these pledges. John of Gaunt was the patron and protector of Wycliffe ; his son became the bitterest persecutor of Wycliffe's followers. In the reign of Richard II., the Commons would not permit even the imprisonment of heretics, and now these unhappy men were burnt by the sole authority of the Ecclesiastical Court. There were two chief reasons for this. Archbishop Arundel had been Henry's great supporter ; and the Church was powerful and rich—so rich as to have a revenue equal to one-third of the whole revenue of the kingdom. In the third year of Henry's reign was passed the statute "Concerning the Burning of a Heretic ;"¹ and it is worthy of remark that both the statute itself, and the petition which led to it, were written in Latin, a language which had not hitherto been used in parliamentary enactments. The first victim was Sir William Sautre,² Rector of St. Osyth's, London. He was burnt in February 1401, and the stake and fagot were kept hard at this work till Henry's death.

(i) The Act *De Heretico comburendo* was not passed by the Commons, but only by one of the Three Estates—namely, the clergy. The act was procured chiefly by the influence of Archbishop Arundel. The clergy were afraid that the Lollards would take the property of the Church ; and that their doctrines would be the ruin of souls.

(ii) If the heretic refused to abjure, or if he relapsed after abjuration, he was given up to the sheriff or other local magistrate to be publicly burned.—A note of the expenses of burning a heretic occurs now and then in the municipal accounts of cities and boroughs. One lady left a fund to the City of London for this purpose.

(iii) There was a strong political element in Lollardism. "The germ of socialism which no doubt existed in the Lollard doctrine, and which showed itself in the constant demand for the abolition of the wealth of the clergy, alarmed the barons, and made them strong supporters of orthodoxy."

¹ *De Heretico comburendo* (=Concerning the Burning of a Heretic).

² Variouslly spelled *Sautre*, *Sautrie*, *Sautre*, *Sautree*, *Saiter*.

(iv) The labour question was really at the root of the Lollard movement. The baronage was pitilessly adverse, the Church lazily indifferent to the condition and to the rights of the over-worked and half-starved peasantry. Similar influences and circumstances produced in Germany, about the same time, the cruel "Peasants' War." As the jovial holiday life of Mediæval England is portrayed in the "Canterbury Tales," the dark side of the picture is presented in Langland's "Vision of William concerning Piers the Plowman." This poem, in native alliterative verse, the work of an unsparing satirist of his time, who knew the facts at first-hand, is the great literary monument of Lollardism.

7. The Work of Parliament.—Parliament during this reign met nearly every year. When Henry had defeated the Percies at Shrewsbury, he was unable to follow up and reap all the fruits of his victory. He was unable to pursue Glendower into Wales. Henry asked the Commons for supplies. The Commons replied that Henry had revenue enough, if only it were well spent. Henry had to give way. The Commons now demanded, as a condition of supplies, that a "**Great and Continual Council**" of Twenty-two should be appointed. This was done; and they then granted a tax of one shilling on every pound's worth of land or other property in England. But they also appointed four "War-Treasurers" to see how this money was spent.—In 1407 a still greater advance was made; for, in that year, the Commons succeeded in establishing the constitutional maxim that all money grants must originate in their House, and not in the Lords. They also succeeded in establishing another very important constitutional point:—that money voted for a particular object should be spent for that object, and for no other. For this purpose, they paid such money grants into the hands of Treasurers appointed by themselves; and they also insisted on a periodical and rigorous examination and audit of all accounts. This right of audit was never contested by the kings of the House of Lancaster. The Commons went even further. They regulated the Royal Household, and took care that no officer of the Household should hold his place for life or even for a fixed term. All these and other arrangements virtually established a strictly limited monarchy.—An important act was also passed for prohibiting the keeping of the bands of men called **Retainers**.

(i) The idea of appointing Ministers by consultation between King and Parliament was first started in Edward III.'s time; but it was now made real and practical.

(ii) In the end of the year 1404, the **Indoctum Parliamentum** (= Lay or Illiterate

Parliament) met; gave the king large taxes; and proposed that he should take one year's income from the clergy for his wars.

It was called the *Lay Parliament*, because the writs issued forbade lawyers to be chosen members, as it was thought that they were in the habit of wasting time by "upholding points of law."

(iii) In 1410, the Knights of the Shire proposed to the king that he should take one-third of the revenues of the Church for maintaining his army, one-third for his own needs, leaving one-third for the revenue of the bishops and other clergy. But the king was under too great obligations to the Church to think of this.

They pointed out that this would support 15 Earls, 1500 Knights, and 6200 men-at-arms.

(iv) In the latter part of the reign, a Council of sixteen was appointed, at the head of which was the Prince of Wales.

(v) *Retainers* were men who wore the badge or livery of some great baron, living—not in, but—in the neighbourhood of his castle, and always ready to fight in his quarrels. They were often disbanded soldiers; they constituted small private standing armies; and enabled the barons to make private war on each other or on the king.

8. The Prince of Wales.—Henry trained his sons to take an active part in public affairs; and his eldest son, Henry of Monmouth, seems to have been present at most of his Councils. Thomas, Duke of Clarence, the second son, was the Lieutenant-Governor of Ireland, and John, Duke of Bedford, the third, ruled those parts of France which still remained subject to England. The Prince of Wales was as popular with the people of London as his father had been before him in his youth; and Henry, who was very jealous and suspicious of every one, had at one time a fear that his son intended to supplant him. But an interview which the Prince of Wales sought with his father freed his mind from this suspicion.

(i) There is a celebrated story told about the Prince of Wales. It is said that one of his suite had been brought for some offence before Gascoigne, the Chief-Justice of the King's Bench; the young Henry went down to the Court, imperiously demanded the release of his servant, and, upon the refusal of the judge, drew his sword. The judge, not in the least dismayed by this attack of the king's son, at once ordered him into prison for contempt of court. Henry submitted and obeyed. When the king heard of it—"Happy is the king," he said, "who has a judge that is no respecter of persons, and a son who knows he is subject to the law."

(ii) It is said that the Beauforts advised Henry iv., harassed as he was by ill-health and by enemies, to abdicate in favour of his eldest son.

(iii) This did not meet with Henry's approval; and it may be due to this suggestion that Prince Henry was dismissed from the Council in 1412.

9. Death and Character of Henry IV.—Henry, whose health had never been strong since his accession, was fast breaking down

under the steady pressure of numerous anxieties. One day, while praying at the shrine of Edward the Confessor, in Westminster Abbey, he was seized with an epileptic fit. He was carried into the Jerusalem Chamber, where the Convocation of the clergy now meets, and laid upon a pallet before the fire. Upon coming to his senses, he asked where he was, and upon being informed, he recalled to mind an old prophecy which had said that he should die in *Jerusalem* :

"It hath been prophesied to me many years,
I should not die but in Jerusalem ;
Which, verily, I supposed the Holy Land :—
But bear me to that chamber ; there I'll lie ;
In that Jerusalem shall Harry die !" ¹

He never rose from his bed again, but pined and drooped and sickened, and died a few days afterwards, on the 20th March 1413. He is said to have been a man who "never lost his presence of mind, and seldom lost his temper." His character was full of contradictions, of good qualities and bad qualities, of strong and of weak elements ; it "was too good for banning, and too bad for blessing." He was at heart cold and unsympathetic ; selfishness was his ruling passion ; and he too easily forgot the services which others had rendered to him.

10. Great Men.—Among the most distinguished men of this reign were **Thomas Arundel**, Archbishop of Canterbury, who several times served the office of Chancellor, and was always a staunch friend and thoughtful adviser of Henry ; **Thomas Beaufort** ; and **Henry Beaufort**, bishop of Winchester. The two Beauforts were half-brothers of the king, and both of them were Chancellors of England for some years. In war, the chief actors were **Harry Percy** (or Hotspur), the son of the Earl of Northumberland, and **Owen Glendower**, who maintained his independence throughout Henry's reign and for some years after.

The chronicles of Jean Froissart, a Frenchman born at Valenciennes in 1337, relate, in a very vivid and picturesque style, the chief events, battles, and political arrangements of the century. His book covers the area from 1326 to 1400.

11. Social Facts.—King Henry IV. instituted, at his coronation, a new order of knights,—the **Knights of the Bath**. The Guildhall in the city of London was rebuilt. Towards the end of the century, glass windows, tiles instead of thatch, and candles were introduced. The wages paid for labour had been rising ever since the Black Death ;

¹ Shakespeare's Second Part of "King Henry IV." iv. 4.

and we find that haymakers now received a penny a day ; ordinary labourers, three-halfpence ; carpenters, twopence ; and masons, as much as threepence. That these wages were high may be seen when we compare them with the price of a horse, which could be bought for 18s. 4d. ; and when we find that a fat sheep cost only three shillings.

(i) In 1399 the Order of the Bath was instituted. When young esquires were made knights, they had to watch their armour all night in the church of their patron saint, and to bathe themselves in the morning in token of the purity which they must henceforward show in their lives. Henry made forty-six Knights of the Bath at his coronation.

(ii) "The fifteenth century witnessed, if not the entire extinction of serfage, at least its limitation within very narrow bounds. Economic laws proved too strong for the governing classes, and they found their account rather in dealing with the labourer as a free man to be bargained with, than in treating him as a serf to be compelled to work against his will for nothing."—GARDINER.

12. Scotland (i).—Robert II. was succeeded on the throne by his eldest son John, who took the title of **Robert III.** He was a man feeble in body, in mind, and in will ; and the Scottish Estates, in the year 1398, appointed his eldest son Robert, Duke of Rothesay, Regent of the Kingdom of Scotland. But the most powerful man in the kingdom was in reality the king's brother, the Duke of Albany, a wicked and unscrupulous noble. Albany had his nephew Rothesay arrested, threw him into a dungeon at Falkland Palace in Fife, and there left him to die of starvation. Robert III. died in the year 1406.

(i) "John was the name given to him in baptism ; yet so odious had the words 'King John' become, as the title of him (John Balliol) who bore the odium of selling the national independence, that it was deemed a prudent policy to give the new king the popular name of Robert, although that was held by his younger brother."—BURTON.

(ii) The title of *Duke* was a new title in Scotland ; and was at first reserved for members of the royal family.

13. Scotland (ii).—In 1400, Henry IV. revived the old claim over Scotland, and marched an army to Leith. The Scotch kept out of the way, and the English had only to march back again.—In 1406, James, the heir to the Scotch throne, was on his way to France to be educated, and also to be out of the reach of his too-powerful uncle. the Duke of Albany, when he was captured at sea and carried to Windsor, where he remained a prisoner for nineteen years. He re-

ceived from Henry an excellent education. While in captivity he wrote a poem, in the style of Chaucer, called "The King's Quhair"¹ (or the "King's Book"). On the death of Robert III. the Duke of Albany became regent. In 1411 was fought the **Battle of Harlaw**, in Aberdeenshire. This was a battle between the Scotch Kelts (or Celts) and the Lowlanders, who are of Teutonic extraction, being a mixture of Saxon, Danish, and Norwegian blood. The Kelts were led by *Donald*, Lord of the Isles and Earl of Ross, and then lord over half of Scotland; and the Lowlanders by *Alexander Stewart*, Earl of Mar. The Lowlanders gained the day; and by many this battle is regarded as a greater national deliverance than the victory at Bannockburn, as it fixed the power of the nation in those who were given to industry and settled habits. The shifting of power and influence from the Highlands to the Lowlands had been going on for generations.

"Henry retired with the most bloodless and inoffensive army that ever entered Scotland."—BURTON.

¹ *Quhair* is a form of the word *quire* (of paper).

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF HENRY IV.'s REIGN.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>1399. Henry IV. raised to the throne.
 (a) Acts of Parliament of Shrewsbury annulled.
 (b) Acts of Merciless Parliament confirmed.</p> <p>1400. (a) Rising of some of the Lords Appellant.
 (b) Murder of Richard II.
 (c) Rebellion of Glendower.</p> <p>1401. Act De Heretico comburendo.
 William Sawtré burnt; first execution in England for heresy.</p> <p>1402. Battle of Homildon Hill.</p> <p>1403. (a) Rebellion of the Percies, Glendower and Mortimer, with Douglas.
 (b) Battle of Shrewsbury.</p> <p>1404. "Great and Continual Council" of twenty-two appointed at request of the Commons.</p> | <p>1406. (a) James, son of the Scottish king, captured at sea.
 (b) Conspiracy of Archbishop Scrope and others in favour of the young Earl of March.</p> <p>1406. The Commons demand a Proper Audit of the accounts of moneys granted by them.</p> <p>1407. The Commons acquire the sole power of originating money grants.</p> <p>1410. The Knights of the Shire offer to the king the lands of Church for the support of an army.</p> <p>1411. "Retainers" prohibited by Parliament.</p> <p>1412. Prince of Wales is dismissed from the Council.</p> <p>1413. Death of Henry IV.</p> |
|--|---|

CHAPTER II.

HENRY THE FIFTH (OF MONMOUTH)

Born 1388. Succeeded (at the age of 25) in 1413. Died 1422.

Reigned 9 years.

HENRY OF MONMOUTH was the eldest son of Henry iv. and Mary of Bohun. (His brothers were : Thomas, Duke of Clarence ; John, Duke of Bedford ; and Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester.) When only thirteen, he led an army into Wales against Glendower, but was defeated. He married, in 1420, Katharine of France, the daughter of Charles vi. They had only one son, Henry of Windsor, afterwards Henry vi.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

SCOTLAND : JAMES I. FRANCE : CHARLES VI. POPE : MARTIN V. (1417).

1. The New Reign.—The task before Henry v. was a much more simple and easy one than that which had fallen to the lot of his father. The dynasty was fairly secure—in spite of the existence of the young Earl of March ; the organisation of law and justice was in smooth working order ; and the young king had had a good deal of practice in the art of government during the lifetime of Henry iv. The plot promoted by the Lollards, and the more dangerous plot in favour of his cousin the Earl of March, he was destined easily to overcome. There is, however, in this reign very little indeed of the history of England ; it is almost entirely filled with wars in France.

2. Henry V., 1413-1422.—In one of the conversations which took place between father and son, Henry v. is said to have replied to a remark of his father : “By your sword you won your crown, and by my sword will I keep it.” And the war with France, undertaken with a view to give employment to restless spirits, and to keep his

enemies in England quiet, was the result of this early-formed resolution. Shakespeare has, in his representations¹ of the young Prince of Wales, induced among the English people the belief that he was an extravagant, idle, reckless roysterer, whose companions were men of great wit, but of no character—like Falstaff and Bardolph. But the historical evidence points in just the opposite direction. We find him at the age of fifteen Lieutenant of Wales, with full powers of ruling the country, of inquiring into offences, executing or pardoning offenders, and summoning to arms the king's lieges, and we find him also President of the Council at the early age of eighteen. When Henry iv. died, his accession to the throne was hailed with universal joy. Wishing to separate himself from the cruel and high-handed acts of his father, he released the young Earl of March from captivity; recalled the heir of the Percies from exile, and restored him to his earldom; and he had the body of Richard II. buried with great splendour in Westminster Abbey.

3. The Lollards.—In the first year of Henry's reign, the Lollards, with Sir John Oldcastle—an old friend and companion of the king—at their head, were the cause of some trouble and anxiety. Oldcastle—Lord Cobham by marriage—was arrested and thrown into the Tower, and Henry tried to induce him to recant, but without success. Oldcastle was inflexible; he was put upon his trial, was convicted of heresy, and condemned to be burnt. He was allowed, however, to escape from the Tower, and he lay hid for some years in Wales. He was again arrested in 1417; and, in spite of the old friendship of the king, was hung alive in chains, and a fire burnt slowly beneath his feet.

(i) In 1414 Oldcastle made a plot with his Lollard friends to seize Henry at Eltham (in Kent); but the plot broke down. Their next plan was to meet in force in St. Giles's Fields; but Henry closed the gates of London, dispersed the gathering, and put to death a number of Lollards. (They had posted declarations on the doors of the City Churches, that a hundred thousand men were ready to fight in their cause.)

(ii) The Lollards were detested not only as heretics, but as reformers. Their policy contained the following heads: the abolition of serfdom; the doing away with heavy taxes; and the taking the lands of the Church for the defence of the country.

4. The Hundred Years' War.—The Hundred Years' War was resumed by Henry in 1415. Henry renewed the claim to the

¹ In his play of "Henry V."

French crown made by his great-grandfather Edward III.—a claim which was, in Henry's case, entirely groundless. The French king, Charles IV., was insane, and the country was torn by two rival factions. Henry appointed his brother, the Duke of Bedford, regent of the kingdom, and prepared to embark with an army of 30,000 men at Southampton. His embarkation was delayed for a few days by the discovery of a conspiracy to place the Earl of March on the throne. Richard, Earl of Cambridge, who had married the Earl of March's sister,¹ Lord Scrope, and Sir Thomas Grey, were the chief conspirators. After a short trial, they were all found guilty of high treason, and put to death on the scaffold.

5. The Landing in France.—Henry sailed across the Channel to Harfleur, a town at the mouth of the Seine, and laid siege to it. It was defended with the most stubborn obstinacy; but, after a fierce struggle, it was compelled to surrender to the new artillery of Henry. He had a number of large cannon, called *bombards*; and an old writer says of them, that they “vomited from their fiery mouths vast quantities of stones, with a vehement explosion and a terrific and intolerable noise.” Disease and death had made great havoc in the English army, and thinned it down to one-third of its original number; the fleet was driven off the coast by bad weather, and Henry offered to give up his conquest if he were allowed to retire peacefully upon his English town of Calais. But the French, who had now assembled an army about ten times the number of the English, would listen to nothing but unconditional surrender. Henry preferred death, and resolved to cut his way at all risks to Calais.

(i) Among the causes of the war were: (a) The bishops wished to divert the attention of Parliament from the immense breadth of land held by the Church; (b) the nobles were tired of peace and a country life; and (c) the merchants wanted to find new markets.

(ii) The pay in Henry's army was as follows: A Duke, 13s. 4d. a day; an Earl, 6s. 8d.; a baron, 4s.; a knight, 2s.; a *nau-at-arms*, 1s.; an archer, 6d. The ordinary wages of labourers was at this time 4d. a day; and hence it was easy to find men who would gladly come for 6d. There was also the prospect of prize-money and pillage.

(iii) Many foreigners still held benefices in England, and the Archbishop of Canterbury and his colleagues agreed that the incomes of all the “alien priories” should go to Henry for his war expenses.

6. Henry's March.—With a weary, sickly, and half-starved but

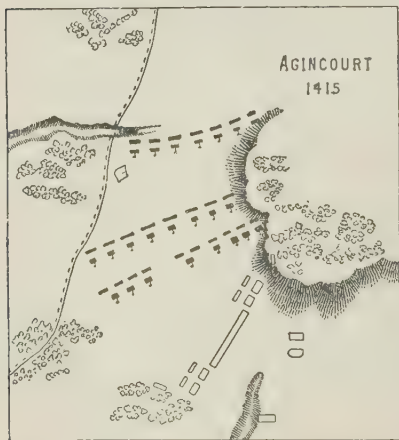
¹ Their son was Richard, Duke of York—the father of Edward IV.

still courageous force, he succeeded, after making a long detour, in crossing the Somme, and found himself face to face with a French army of about eighty thousand men. The English spent the night before the battle in confession and taking the sacrament; the French in drinking, singing, and playing at dice for the ransoms of the prisoners they looked forward to making. Henry sent out David Gam, a Welshman, as a spy to discover the force and position of the enemy; and this fiery but light-headed gentleman returned with the graphic but not very instructive report that there were "enough to be killed, enough to be taken, and enough to run away." One of Henry's friends expressed a wish for "but one ten thousand of those men in England that do no work to-day;" but Henry answered: "No; not a single man more. If we are to die, the smaller loss for England; if to conquer, the greater honour for each man of us."

(i) Henry tried to keep along the coast, and to cross the Somme at "White Shingle Ford" (Blanchetaque), where Edward III. had crossed to fight the battle of Cressy; but the ford was too strongly held. He was accordingly obliged to make his way up the river, to beyond Peronne, where the stream is small; and then to strike northward.

(ii) The total efficient force at Henry's disposal seems to have been nine hundred men-at-arms and five thousand bowmen.

7. Agincourt, October 25, 1415.—The odds were over twelve to



one. Henry relied most on his English bowmen, on "the crooked stick and the grey-goose wing," which had already at Cressy and Poitiers proved their power against the mailed chivalry of feudal knighthood. He ordered each archer to provide himself with a stake, sharpened at both ends, which he was to plant firmly in the ground on the approach of cavalry; and he concealed a small

party of archers in the neighbouring village of Tramecourt. The French army advanced between the woods of Tramecourt and

Agincourt, in a space very much too confined for the movements of heavy-armed cavalry ; and their front was so narrow that "the dense masses were drawn up thirty men deep." Before beginning the battle, the English knelt down as one man and prayed to God for a few moments ; and each man solemnly put a small piece of earth into his mouth, in remembrance of the fact that of dust he was formed, and to dust must very soon return. Then, with loud shouts and English hurrahs, they slowly and steadily began their advance. The French had received orders to keep in their ranks, and to allow the small body of the English to weary themselves out. But the first flight, the thick and ugly "iron sleet" of the English arrows, broke their patience, and roused their personal and national pride. The dense body of men-at-arms put spurs to their horses, and plunged heavily forward through miry and new-ploughed ground ; the sharpened stakes were driven into the earth ; shower after shower of arrows found their way between the joints of the armour of the French knights ; the horses became unmanageable from their wounds, and turned back upon their own lines ; and the French knights became locked in one solid, helpless, heaving and struggling mass. Now was the time for the English footmen. Slinging their bows on their backs, they rushed from behind their stakes, ran in among the plunging and entangled horses, and, with bill-hook, mace, and axe, cut and hacked the high-born French knights to pieces at their will. The living fell upon the dead, the dead fell upon the living, and the English climbed up these horrible writhing heaps and butchered the knights and men-at-arms below. Henry wore his jewelled crown upon his helmet, and was everywhere and always in the front of the fight. His crown was cleft by the sword of the Duke of Alençon, his armour and shield were dented and battered and hacked, and twenty French knights, having sworn on the cross of their swords to capture or to kill him, made at him in one compact mass ; but every man of them was laid dead at his feet. The battle had only lasted three hours, and eleven thousand Frenchmen lay dead upon the field—among them the Constable¹ of France, seven French princes, and one hundred great barons. It was another blow to the ascendancy of the ponderous but inefficient mail-clad knight.

¹ Constable—the highest military rank in the army of Old France. (The word comes from the Latin *Comes Stabuli*=Count of the Stable, and is therefore similar in meaning to *Marshal*.)

(i) The mistake of the Constable of France was that he drew up his men between two woods, in three divisions—only the front one of which could act, and in muddy and new-ploughed ground.

(ii) The English bowmen had wisely taken off one shoe, so that one foot might keep a firm hold in the slippery ground. They had also stripped to the waist, so that their arms might be more free. (Henry had stirred the anger of the archers by telling them that the French had sworn to maim every archer they captured—so that he should never be able to shoot again.)

(iii) When the English had beaten the first division with arrows from a distance, and with sword and axes at close fighting, it fell back upon the second division. This was attacked in the same way, and with the same result. Both fell back on the third division. The third division was attacked in the same way, and a flank-movement from Tramecourt completed the overthrow of the whole army.)

When the first flight of arrows had come from the English bowmen, "these Frenchmen came pricking down, as if they would have overridden all our company. But God and our archers made them soon to stumble, for our archery shot never arrow amiss, that did not pierce and bring to ground horse and man. And our stakes made them stop, and overturned them one upon another, so that they lay in heaps two-spears high. And our king, with his company and his men-at-arms and archers, thwacked on them so thick with arrows, and laid on with strokes. And our king fought like a man with his own hands." "It seemed as though they were hammering upon anvils."

8. The Return to London.—The battle of Agincourt was fought not far from Cressy; and the victory was even greater than the victory of that day. A sudden alarm caused Henry to give an order to kill the prisoners, but the massacre was stopped as soon as Henry had learned that no renewal of the battle was intended. The loss of the English amounted to about 1600, and this loss had fallen chiefly on the foot-soldiers. Henry now embarked his troops and returned to England. When the king's ship sailed into the port of Dover, the people rushed into the sea, hoisted Henry in their arms, and bore their young hero to the shore. Twenty thousand Londoners, all wearing "the devices of their crafts" and guilds, met him at Blackheath and escorted him into London; but the king—a modest Englishman—would not allow his helmet and armour, which bore many deep marks of battle, to be carried before him. Parliament granted him a subsidy for life on wool and leather, and eagerly voted him large sums to carry on the war.

By granting him the tax on wool and leather for life, Parliament gave up so much of its own power, and could not therefore control the purse of the king.

9. Treaty of Troyes, May 21, 1420.—In 1417 Henry again invaded Normandy, beat down all before him, and took fortress after

fortress, and town after town. Rouen was gallantly held by a noble Frenchman, Alan Blanchard ; but so close was the blockade, that it was at last subdued by hunger. "War," said Henry, with all the inhumanity of his father, "has three handmaidens ever in attendance upon her—fire, famine, and slaughter ; and I have chosen the meekest maid of the three." Twelve thousand persons were thrust out of the city ; but Henry refused them passage, and most of them died in the slow agonies of starvation between the English army and the walls of their town. At the end of six months, the town surrendered ; but Henry, as if to blot his fair fame as a noble knight, ordered Blanchard to be put to death in cool blood. In this town of Rouen Henry built a palace and held his court. Philip the Good, Duke of Burgundy, and the French queen now made a treaty with Henry at **Troyes**, by which they gave him the hand of the French princess Katharine, the regency of the kingdom, and the right to succeed to the crown after the death of Charles. In the beginning of the year 1421, Henry held his Parliament at Rouen, and ordered coins to be struck, with the inscription, "Henry heir of France." But the eldest son of the king,—the **Dauphin**,—who was disinherited by the treaty, of course declined to acknowledge it, refused to do homage to Henry, and still kept the field with his troops.

(i) An old chronicler writes : "Many hundreds died for hunger, for they had eaten all their cats, horses, hounds, rats, mice, and all that might be eaten ; and oft-times the men-at-arms driving out the poor people at the gates of the city, for spending of victual, our men drove them in again ; and young children lay dead in the streets, hanging on the dead mothers' breasts, that pity was to see."

(ii) The Orleanists (or "Armagnacs") had invited the Duke of Burgundy to a Conference with the Dauphin, and had treacherously murdered him as he was kneeling to the French Prince. This threw the young Duke, Philip the Good, into the arms of the English ; and it also brought the French queen to the English and Burgundian side.

(iii) Though by the **Treaty of Troyes**, Henry was the Regent, and afterwards King of France, yet the French were to be ruled according to their own laws, rights, and customs, and by a French Council. ("This disgraceful treaty had the effect of reviving the national party in France.")

10. Death and Character of Henry.—Henry had not been long back in England before he was recalled to France. He reduced the towns on the Upper Seine, and entered Paris in triumph. The French Parliament—or, as it was then called, the States-General—was summoned to Paris, where it solemnly confirmed the Treaty of

Troyes, and acknowledged Henry as the future sovereign of France. The Duke of Clarence, who had been left in command of the English forces, was attacked, defeated, and killed, along with two thousand of his followers, at Beaugé. Henry, terribly exasperated, now took the field again, and made himself master of all France north of the Loire, except Orleans. Never had he been so successful. His last triumph was the capture of Meaux, a town on the Marne, above Paris. He fell ill shortly after, of dysentery, and, after languishing for a month at the Castle of Vincennes, near Paris, died on the 31st of August 1422. He died in the very noontide of his power and fame. He too, like his father, had meditated a crusade to free Jerusalem. When the monks at his bedside read the words in one of the Psalms, "Build thou the walls of Jerusalem," he said: "Yes, if I had finished the war in France, I would have gone to Palestine and redeemed the holy city from the Saracens." He was only thirty-three. His funeral procession was the grandest that had ever been seen in France, and it expressed more than the merely conventional sorrow. From Paris to Rouen, from Rouen to Abbeville, from Abbeville to Calais, the French looked upon the solemn cavalcade with sympathy, with reverence, and with pity; for they had seen the perfect discipline which he kept up in his army, how he restrained the lawlessness and plundering of his soldiers, and how sternly he punished the tyranny and exactions of their own lords. Five hundred knights in black armour, three hundred torches, with banners and pennons innumerable, preceded the funeral car; and his burial in Westminster Abbey was the grandest and most solemn that had ever been given to an English king. Above his tomb are still to be seen hanging his saddle and his dented helmet. He was indeed the greatest monarch that had sat on the throne of England since William the Conqueror. He was frank, fearless, capable, and self-reliant. He has been described as "the noblest representative of the House of Lancaster—a Bayard, a statesman, and a fanatic; yet, above all, in everything he said or did, a king and an Englishman."

(i) At the **Battle of Beaugé** the French were assisted by 5000 Scottish soldiers under the Earl of Buchan and Lord Stewart of Darnley. Buchan engaged in a hand-to-hand fight with the Duke of Clarence (King Henry's eldest brother), killed him, and was created Constable of France.

This is the first mention of the Darnley family in history.

(ii) Henry died of dysentery, which was at that time, and for centuries after, the scourge of armies. It was generally brought on by bad food, bad water, bad wine, irregular meals, wet clothes, etc.

(iii) About a year after Henry v.'s death, his widow, Katharine of Valois, married **Owen Tudor**, a Welsh gentleman in a military office at Windsor. The eldest son of this union was **Edmund**, Earl of Richmond, whose son was Henry vii. Hence the **Tudor Line**.

11. Scotland.—During the imprisonment of James i. of Scotland in Windsor Castle, the Duke of Albany, brother to Robert iii., was regent of the kingdom. The connection between Scotland and France grew closer and stronger during this regency.

Albany had died in 1419; and his son Murdoch succeeded him as Regent. Murdoch succeeded in procuring the release of James i. by the payment of £40,000 for his board and education. James came back in 1424 with his head full of reforms. He had come from "the country of the Domesday Book and of feudal precision, of common law and statute law." He at once set to work on his self-allotted task of law and land reform. He appointed a Royal Commission to revise the old laws; and he ordered a survey of all lands and a valuation of all properties to be made for the purposes of regular taxation.—He arrested his cousin Albany with two of his sons, put them on their trial for treason, and executed them on the Heading Hill at Stirling. One of the persons whose lands he had interfered with was Sir Robert Graham, the uncle of the Earl of Strathearn. Graham publicly vowed vengeance against the king. James went, in the winter of 1436, to hold his Christmas revels in the Black Friars' Monastery at Perth, in spite of the warnings of a weird Highland woman, who had told him that, if he once crossed the Forth, he would never come back. One night, just before James went to bed, a body of three hundred Highlanders broke into the monastery, and made their way to the king's room. James tore up the flooring, and hid himself in a vault below. He was discovered and put to death with sixteen stabs in his body.

James i.
murdered.
1436.

(i) A company of Scots, led by the Earl of Buchan, the second son of Albany, helped the French to gain their first victory over the English, at Beaugé, in 1421. As a reward for this great and unhopèd-for success, the Earl of Buchan was made Constable of France (the highest military rank in the army of Old France).

(ii) Something had been done in this reign for education, as is shown by the founding of the first Scottish University, the University of St. Andrews, by Bishop Wardlaw in 1411.

(iii) James I. also fixed standards for the coinage, and for weights and measures. He also established butts and regular schools for practice in archery.

(iv) One of the ladies in attendance on the queen, **Catherine Douglas**, finding the great bolt of the chamber-door gone—it had been removed by treachery—thrust her arm through the staples. But this was no help; her arm was quickly broken.

12. Social Facts.—This reign saw the first beginnings of the **English Navy**. Fighting ships, before this time, were simply merchant-vessels filled with men-at-arms; but Henry now built a fleet of his own. **Edward III.** was in the habit of hiring galleys and seamen from the Genoese; but Henry had very large ships built for him at Southampton, which was then a rising port. Commerce, which often flourishes during war, took a prosperous start during this reign; and one proof of this is the story of the “**Flower of Merchants**,” **Richard Whittington**, thrice Lord Mayor of London. Whittington lent large sums to Henry V. for his wars, and was also founder of **Whittington College** for decayed merchants. Treaties, too, were entered into for the promotion of trade with Holland, Flanders, Venice, and the Baltic towns; and thus commerce and shipbuilding greatly flourished. The serfs were gradually becoming free; and it was growing a custom for the farmer and yeoman to pay rent for their farms, instead of services. That the people were fairly prosperous, is shown by the statutes passed to stop extravagance in dress.

(i) The story of “**Whittington and his Cat**” is due to a mistake about an old-fashioned English word, which we borrowed from Norman-French. The word is *acate*, a purchase (from French *acheter*). Whittington grew rich by his *acate*, that is, by his prudent and skilful mode of purchasing. Of the Steward of an Inn of Court, Chaucer writes:—

Algate he waited so in his acate

That he was aye biforn and in good state.

That is: “He always attended so carefully to his purchases, that he was always in front with his accounts (had a balance at his banker’s), and in perfect order.”

(ii) In 1415, London was for the first time lighted with lanterns.

(iii) No labourer’s wife was allowed to wear a dress the stuff of which cost over 2s. a yard—about equal to 20s. of our present money; and she must not wear silver mountings. This is known as “**sumptuary legislation**” (Lat. *sumptus*, expense); and it was frequently resorted to in the luxurious days of the Roman Empire,—but at no time with success.

13. Great Men.—Among the men who, during this short reign, played an important and prominent part in politics, the two most

distinguished are **Archbishop Arundel** and **Cardinal Beaufort**, bishop of Winchester. Beaufort, who was half-brother, and had always been a staunch friend to Henry iv., was Chancellor of the Kingdom for several years in the reign of Henry v. The man who played the most important part in ecclesiastical politics was the brave but unhappy **Sir John Oldcastle**, also called Lord Cobham. The eldest brother of Henry v., **Thomas, Duke of Clarence**, took a considerable share in the French wars, but was killed upon the field of Beaugé in 1421.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF HENRY V 's. REIGN.

1413. Accession of Henry V

1414. (a) Meeting of Lollards in St. Giles's Fields

(b) Statutes to be based on petitions *without alteration.*

1415. (a) First Invasion of France.

(b) Battle of Agincourt.

1416. Henry forms an alliance with the Duke of Burgundy.

1417. Second Invasion of France.

(a) Many towns in Normandy taken.

(b) Oldcastle executed

1420. Treaty of Troyes, also called "The Great Peace."

1421. Third Invasion of France.

(The Duke of Clarence had been defeated at Beaugé.)

1422. (a) Capture of Meaux.

(b) Death of Henry.

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.

1415. Portuguese take Ceuta in the north of Africa.

1418. (a) The Great Schism between the Popes terminated by the Council of Constance.

(b) Burning of John Huss at Constance.

1419. Assassination of the Duke of Burgundy by the party of the Dauphin.

1422. Death of Charles vi. of France. He is succeeded by Charles vii.

CHAPTER III.

HENRY THE SIXTH (OF WINDSOR).

Born in 1421. Succeeded (at the age of 8 months) in 1422.

Dethroned 1461. Died 1471. Reigned 39 years.

HENRY of WINDSOR (or HENRY VI.) was the only child of Henry v. and Katharine of France. His grandfather by the mother's side was Charles the Mad (vi.) of France; and Henry vi. seems to have inherited the mental weakness of his maternal grandfather. He married, in 1446, Margaret of Anjou, the daughter of René, Duke of Bar, Count of Provence, etc. etc. They had only one child, Edward, who was murdered at Tewkesbury at the age of eighteen. Henry vi. was dethroned in 1461; was restored for a short time in 1470; and died in the Tower of London in 1471.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

SCOTLAND: JAMES I. FRANCE: CHARLES VII. POPE: MARTIN V. etc.
JAMES II.

1. **Henry VI. 1422-1461.**—The new king was a baby about eight months old; but no one ventured to dispute the succession. Henry v.'s will was, however, set aside by Parliament; and the Privy Council became the governing body of England. The whole story of this reign is the story of a king who was, in the first part of his reign, weak through his age,—in the second part, weak from want of courage and character; and, indeed, he was just as much a minor after his so-called majority and marriage, as he had been before. The first part of his reign was filled with the disastrous wars in France; and these were hardly concluded when the civil wars called the **Wars of the Roses** broke out in England itself. In both of these long struggles, Henry was never anything else than a puppet in the hands of other and stronger persons. Quarrels between the chief members of the royal house; financial difficulty and debt—a

country drained of men and money ; an uncertain and vacillating foreign policy ; feeble administration at home ; the imbecility—sometimes degenerating into idiocy—of the king, family feuds and private wars all combined to make this reign a confused scene of riot and disorder.

(i) **Henry Beaufort**, bishop of Winchester (afterwards Cardinal Beaufort), was tutor to the young prince.

(ii) When his mother married Owen Tudor, he was intrusted, at the age of three, to Dame Alice Boteler, who had authority (by warrant from Henry himself) to chastise him from time to time “as reasonablewise as the case may require.”

2. The Protectorate.—Henry v., on his deathbed, named the Duke of Bedford Protector of the Realm and Regent in France, while the Duke of Gloucester, in the absence of Bedford abroad, was to be Regent in England. But the Council of the Kingdom, acting on their own responsibility, set aside Gloucester, and gave him merely the empty title of “Protectorate of the Realm of England.” Next to Gloucester stood Henry Beaufort, bishop of Winchester (afterwards Cardinal Beaufort)—an able statesman, and a staunch friend of the reigning dynasty. Two months after the death of Henry, Charles vi., king of France, also died ; so that the infant Henry of Windsor was now king of England and France. But the Dauphin, who now took the title of Charles vii., contested his claim to the French throne. The territory, however, in his possession was so small that the English party styled him in scorn, not King of France, but King of Bourges. Henry v. had left directions on his deathbed to be careful to preserve the friendship of the Duke of Burgundy, as this alliance was the only key to success in France ; but Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, strongly opposed this policy, and hence became one of the main causes of the loss of French territory. He was called “the good Duke ;” but few have ever less deserved the name.

(i) As Bedford was mostly in France, Gloucester had the chief place in England and the next place was held by **Henry Beaufort**, bishop of Winchester.

(ii) The people of England were extremely jubilant at the idea that their young king was also king of France

(iii) Gloucester married Jacqueline of Hainault— the divorced wife of a relation of the Duke of Burgundy. This lady was Countess of Holland and owned wide lands in the Low Countries—which the Duke of Burgundy wished to rule over. But this marriage produced a bitter quarrel between the two Dukes ; and it was the **first blow** to the Burgundian Alliance.

3. State of Affairs in France.—The English territory in France, at the beginning of this reign, ran right down in an uninterrupted line from Calais to the Pyrenees. The chief ally of the English was the Duke of Burgundy; and, without the Burgundian alliance, success for the English army was impossible. To secure their communications, it was necessary to be in touch with Burgundy on the east, and with Brittany on the west. These communications were secured by two battles and two marriages. The Duke of Bedford married a sister of Burgundy; and the Duke of Brittany's brother married another sister. The **Battle of Crevant**, in 1423, fought by the English and Burgundians against the French and Scotch, cleared the district between Paris and Burgundy; and the **Battle of Verneuil**, in 1424, enabled the English army in and in the neighbourhood of Paris to keep up communications with the Duke of Brittany. In both of these battles, especially in the latter, the Scots contingent lost heavily in men and leaders. To stop more help coming from Scotland to the French, the English Privy Council sent James I. home again, after marrying him to a daughter of one of the Beauforts. The French were now obliged to keep on the south side of the Loire; and the English were engaged in 1428 in besieging their strongest town on that river.

(i) **Crevant** is on the head-waters of the Yonne, a tributary of the Seine. About 1200 knights, chiefly Scotch, were left dead upon the field.

(ii) **Verneuil** is a small town south-west of Paris. Here again the English bowmen gained the day. The French army was "shattered by the English archers from behind their impenetrable wall of pointed stakes." The Scotch auxiliaries were nearly destroyed; the Earl of Buchan, Constable of France, and the Earl of Douglas were among the killed. The victory was compared in Parliament to the victory of Agincourt. The effects were nearly as great; the whole French army had to withdraw behind the Loire.

(iii) The Lady whom James I. married was **Joan Beaufort**, daughter of the Earl of Somerset, and grand-daughter of John of Gaunt. He wrote some fine poems about her.

4. Battle of the Herrings, 1429.—The Earl of Suffolk was in command of the troops that were besieging the town of Orleans. The French tried to cut off a convoy of provisions for the besiegers, but were totally defeated; and as these provisions were chiefly fish,—for it was Lent,—the fight is known as the *Battle of the Herrings*. The city was on the point of surrendering in April 1429, when a strange

deliverer, utterly unlooked for by either nation, appeared upon the side of the struggling French.

5. **Joan of Arc.**¹—Joan was a peasant girl, the daughter of a small farmer of Domrémy, a village on the eastern border of France, between Champagne and Lorraine. She was “a good girl, simple and pleasant in her ways,” given to solitary walks and meditation, fond of wandering in the dark pine-woods, and so gentle that the birds and beasts did not avoid her as she walked. She was kind and tender to the poor and sick, fond of her devotions, and delighting in the sound of the church bells as it echoed softly among the rocks and glades of her native valley. She was no stranger, however, to the terrors of war. Her family had more than once been obliged to gather up suddenly what they could first lay hands on, and flee to the woods, only to find their home sacked and burnt on their return. The pitying girl had often nursed the wounded and given up to them her own bed; and her whole heart was filled full of sadness for the desolate condition of the “fair realm of France.” Now it was that she began to hear voices and to see visions; and, in one of them, Michael the Archangel appeared to her in a flood of light and bade her go to the help of the king. Her friends thought her mad. “I must go to the king, even if I wear my limbs to the very knees.” When at last she was brought before him, she said: “Gentle Dauphin, I am sent to tell you that you shall be anointed and crowned in the town of Rheims, and you shall be lieutenant of the heavenly King who is the King of France.” The young girl was only seventeen,—tall, noble, and finely formed, and “able to stay from dawn to nightfall on horseback without meat or drink.” They now clad her in white armour, mounted her on a white charger, and gave her a white banner embroidered with the purple lilies of France. The rough soldiers and men-at-arms beheld her with awe, thought her a saint from heaven, left off their swearing and their unholy living, and crowded to the altars of the churches on their march.

(i) “She was given armour like a knight’s, and she sent for a certain sword that was laid up in a church hard by, and had a white banner made, upon which was the image of the Lord and two angels, and so set forth with a small company.”

(ii) “And, before she came, two hundred English would drive five hundred French-

¹ In French *Jeanne d’Arc*. She is also called *Jeannette d’Arc* or *d’Arques*, *Jeanne la Pucelle*, or (in the old Norman-English) *Jehan the Maid*. Her proper name was *Jeanne Darc*; but the English, by a natural mistake, thought that the word was written *D’Arc*, and hence translated it “of Arc.”

men before them in a bicker, but, after her coming, two hundred Frenchmen would drive four hundred Englishmen before them; and the courage of the Frenchmen increased mightily."

6. Joan relieves Orleans.—In the midst of a terrible thunder-storm she marched through the English lines, unperceived and unopposed, and next morning showed herself with her banner on the walls of Orleans. Fort after fort (thirteen had been erected by the besiegers) fell into her hands; and the English, believing they were fighting against invisible powers, raised the siege and marched away; for the belief in witchcraft and sorcery was then a real and living power among all classes of people. Triumph after triumph followed; and, with an army which increased with every day's march, she at length reached the gates of Rheims. "O gentle king, the pleasure of God is done!" she cried, when she saw the crown placed upon the head of Charles VII.; and she passionately longed to go back to her father, to her village and her quiet home. "O that I might go and keep sheep once more with my brothers and sisters; they would be so glad to see me again!" But the French Court had found how useful she was, and refused to let her depart.

7. Fall of Joan.—Her instinct and her voices spoke the truth. From this time she could not help feeling that her mission was at an end, and that she was fighting without support from a higher source. During a sally at the siege of Compiègne, she was thrown from her horse and taken prisoner. After the custom of the time in dealing with prisoners, she was sold by her captor to the Duke of Burgundy, and again by the Duke into the hands of the English. In the eyes of her enemies, her triumphs were triumphs of sorcery; and even her king must have believed her to be a witch, for, with the base ingratitude born of intense and royal selfishness, he made not the smallest attempt either to ransom or to release her. After a year's imprisonment, an ecclesiastical court, with the Bishop of Beauvais at its head, was formed to try her; she was brought before it on a charge of heresy, and condemned to die by the most painful and agonising of deaths. A great pile was raised in the market-place of Rouen; and, amid the deep and awful silence of the brutal soldiery and the unfeeling priests, the heroic soul of the poor young country girl passed away. A statue of Joan of Arc now marks the spot where she suffered death.

Joan of Arc
burnt
1431.

8. Difficulties of the English.—The death of Joan of Arc was no gain to the English. The new courage and hope with which she had inspired the French went on growing. The young king Henry, now a boy of ten, was brought over to France and crowned in Paris (Rheims being in the hands of the French) the very year in which Joan of Arc died; the Duke of Burgundy was made Regent of France, while Bedford contented himself with being Regent of Normandy. For Bedford saw clearly that to retain possession of the whole of France for the child-king was a sheer impossibility. In 1432, Bedford's wife, the sister of the Duke of Burgundy, died; and, the year after, he was ill-advised enough to marry Jacquetta of Luxemburg, without the permission of the Duke of Burgundy, who was the lady's feudal superior. This gave rise to a quarrel between the two Dukes; and this marriage proved to be the **second blow** to the Burgundian Alliance. In 1435, the **Congress of Arras** met; and at this conference, the French offered to give up Normandy and Guienne if Henry would renounce the title of King of France. These very favourable terms were blindly and obstinately refused by the English; and, in the same year, Bedford died. Though Richard, Duke of York, was made Regent of France, he was quite incapable of filling Bedford's place. And, now that the strong personal influence of Bedford was gone, the Duke of Burgundy fell away from the English alliance, and joined the French. The war went on, but almost always to the disadvantage of the English. Normandy was conquered by the French in 1449; Bordeaux and Bayonne were lost in 1451; the brave and brilliant **Talbot** was defeated and killed at **Châtillon** in 1453; and, with him, the whole of the English possessions in France were lost, with the small single exception of **Calais**.

(i) "France was exhausted; but England was in little better plight. For several years the plague had been raging, and an unusually bad harvest added to the horrors of disease. Bread there was none; the people were reduced to live on pulse."

(ii) **Châtillon** is a small town in Poitou, south-east of Nantes.

(iii) By the fall of **Talbot**, "all the inheritance of Henry II. and Eleanor, all the conquests of Edward III. and Henry V., except Calais, were torn from the crown of England."—HALLAM.

(iv) "Had the Plantagenets succeeded, as at one time seemed likely, in uniting all France under their government, it is probable that England would never have had an independent existence. The revenues of her great proprietors would have been spent in festivities and diversions on the banks of the Seine! No man of English extraction would have risen to eminence, except by becoming in spirit and habits a Frenchman.

—MACAULAY.

9. The End of the Hundred Years' War, 1453.—Joan of Arc's cause seemed lost in the market-place of Rouen, and her work utterly undone ; but it was not so. She had, in fact, roused the sleeping national spirit of France ; and, as Hallam says, "a country girl overthrew the power of England." The Duke of Bedford, as we have seen, died in 1435 ; the English army was constantly beaten, and province after province fell into French hands. In 1452 the people of Aquitaine, weary of French rule, sought to return under the rule of England ; and the famous Lord Talbot, Earl of Shrewsbury, was sent to their aid. He captured Bordeaux, and won back much of the neighbouring country ; but at his death, of all the vast English conquests in France, there remained only the Channel Islands and spot of ground on which stood the town of Calais. The English king still, however, and till much later, kept the title of King of France ; but it was an empty title, and no more. Thus, to England, the only outcome of the Hundred Years' War with France was a barren title and a petty seaport.

10. The Governing Powers.—Henry VI. was married in 1445 to **Margaret**, daughter of René of Anjou,¹ Duke of Bar, and King of Naples, Sicily, and Jerusalem. These were mere titles ; he was in fact a vassal of the king of France. In consideration of this marriage, Anjou and Maine, which were then held by the English, were given up to the French government. Margaret was a woman of beauty and spirit, and she at once took more than her share in the management of the country. Henry was a person of weak character, infirm health, feeble intellect, and retired habits. He had inherited the bodily weakness of his English grandfather, Henry IV., and much of the imbecility of his French grandfather, Charles VI., and he had no more weight in his Council now that he had grown up than he had had as a child. In the fits of illness to which he was subject, he lost sense and memory, and the use of his limbs. The regal power was really in the hands of his wife and William de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk. It was Suffolk who arranged the marriage, who brought Margaret to England, and who gave up Anjou ; and he, too, is believed to have had the Duke of Gloucester privately put to death in his own house. Six weeks after, Cardinal Beaufort died, and with him disappeared

¹ Called *Reignier* in Shakespeare's "Henry VI."

the chief barrier against the rising ambition of the house of York. In 1449, Normandy was lost to England; and the barons and people were furious with indignation against the minister who had allowed this rich province—this old appanage of the royal house of England—to go from them. To appease their wrath, the king banished Suffolk for five years; but his enemies intercepted him on his way to Calais, took him into a boat which contained a block, an axe, and an executioner, and there beheaded him upon the tossing waves of the English Channel. The power of Margaret's faction had utterly fallen, and that of the Duke of York was beginning to rise.

(i) "Margaret was a woman of great force of character and considerable personal attractions. Her father was the brother of Charles VII.'s queen, Mary of Anjou; and Henry considered that, by marrying Margaret, he would open a surer way for peace with France than by any other method."

(ii) *De la Pole* (Earl, then Duke, of Suffolk) was the great-grandson of William de la Pole, the rich merchant of Hull who lent money to Richard II. The discredit of the loss of Normandy was given to Suffolk, who was called a *jackanape*—a new word. The rhyme went:

"This is the ape with his clog
What has tied Talbot our good dog"

(iii) *Cardinal Beaufort* was the Bishop of Winchester. In 1426 he received a cardinal's hat; and the Statute of *Præmunire* was suspended in his favour.

(iv) *Richard*, Duke of York, was the grandson of Edmund, Duke of York, the fifth son of Edward III.

11. Jack Cade, 1450.—Terrible discontent raged at this time throughout the country. The Bishop of Chichester, who had been the agent in the cession of Anjou, was seized by the populace and torn to pieces. In Kent, the people rose against the government as one man; they were joined by the men of Surrey and of Sussex; and Jack Cade, an Irishman who had seen a good deal of fighting in the French wars, took the title of "Captain of Kent," placed himself at the head of an army of twenty thousand men, and marched upon London. They sent to the Royal Council two papers—one entitled "The Complaint," and the other "The Demand of the Commons of Kent," in which they asked for the repeal of the Statute of Labourers, the right of election without interference on the part of the great landowners and the Crown, and a better administration of the government. The Council refused to receive the complaint, and sent Sir Humphrey Stafford against them; but he was defeated and slain at Sevenoaks:

and the Kentish captain marched into London, cutting the ropes of the drawbridge with his sword as he passed. Riding through the streets up to London Stone,¹ he struck it with his sword and cried, "Now is Mortimer lord of this city." By *Mortimer*, he most probably meant the Duke of York. Lord Saye-and-Sele, the most unpopular of the royal ministers, was beheaded. And now the Council deigned to receive the complaint; most of Jack Cade's followers dispersed upon promise of pardon, but he himself was pursued and put to death by Iden, the sheriff of Kent. The complaint, it is true, was received, but quietly put under the table; and the Duke of Somerset, who had been chiefly responsible for the wars of Normandy, and had hid himself during the rising, took his place again at the head of the Royal Council table.

Jack Cade's rising was not nearly so important as that of Wat the Tiler in Richard II.'s reign. Jack Cade is said to have called himself John Mortimer, the Duke of York's cousin. "The which captain compelled all the gentles to arise with him: and they came with a great might and a strong host to Blackheath beside Greenwich, to the number of 46,000 men; and there they made a camp, ditched and staked about as it were in land of war, save only that they kept no order among them."

12. Difficulties at Home.—Since the marriage of Henry VI., the queen, Margaret of Anjou, and not himself, had been the practical ruler of the country. After the death of Suffolk, the Duke of York took a more prominent share in the work of governing England. But he was opposed by the Duke of Somerset (Edmund Beaufort), the Queen, the Earl of Northumberland, and Lord Clifford. On the side of York stood the Earl of Salisbury, all the families of the Nevilles, the chief among whom was the Earl of Warwick. York had been declared heir-apparent; but, when the Prince of Wales was born, his chance of the succession had to a large extent disappeared. When, however, the king had an attack of insanity in 1454, York was chosen by the lords Protector of the Kingdom. Somerset was thrown into prison; but when, in the course of 1455, Henry recovered, the Duke of York was dismissed, Somerset was taken out of prison and restored to power. The Yorkist party flew to arms and marched upon London.

(i) Richard, Duke of York, was a son of the Earl of Cambridge, a cousin of Henry V., and great-grandson of Edward III.

(ii) York's son, the Earl of March, became Edward IV.

¹ This stone is now placed in Cannon Street under the walls of St. Dunstan's Church.

13. The Wars of the Roses.—The story of these wars is a confused narrative of plots, battles, murders, treacheries, and executions; but the narrative possesses one remarkable peculiarity, which we must not lose sight of. These wars—though they were civil wars, and utterly shattered feudalism in England—did not affect the general property and industry of the country; they were wars between factions, the battles and disasters were limited to the persons immediately engaged in them, the trading and industrial classes took no part in them and were little affected by them; and the commerce, industry, and business of the country went on as before. The affairs of the country were managed as quietly and as regularly as if the struggle for supremacy were raging on the banks of the Seine instead of on the banks of the Thames. An old French writer, De Comines, says: “The calamities and misfortunes of the war fall on the soldiers, and especially on the nobility; there are no buildings destroyed or demolished by the war, and the mischief of it falls on those who make the war.” “In a week,” says Macaulay, “the peasant was driving his team, and the esquire flying his hawk over the fields of Towton and Bosworth, as if no extraordinary event had interrupted the regular course of human life.”

14. Yorkists and Lancastrians.—The war arose out of the struggle between the two houses of York and Lancaster; the Yorkists took the *White Rose* as their badge, the *Red Rose* being the mark of the party of Lancaster. Richard Plantagenet, Duke of York, and the grandson of that Roger Mortimer, Earl of March, who had been declared heir to the throne by Richard II., was the head of the one faction; and he claimed under two titles—the one as a descendant of Lionel, Duke of Clarence (on the mother's side), the third son; and the other as a descendant of Edmund, Duke of York, the fifth son, of Edward III. He had thus a double claim. Edmund Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, a descendant of Katherine Swynford, was—as we have seen—the head of the Lancastrian party. He was the favourite at Court; his claims to the crown were favoured by the half-imbecile Henry, but the people of England detested him for his policy in letting Normandy go. The immediate cause of these wars was the weakness of Henry's character; that they lasted so long was due to the greed and rapacity of the barons,

who, no longer able to plunder France and to sell French prisoners for large ransoms, turned their powers and appetites for destruction against each other. The Wars of the Roses lasted thirty-five years, though the actual fighting covered no more than a space of two years ; and one-half of the nobility of England were slain in the battles.

(i) The **Lancastrians** were so called because Henry vi. was descended in a direct line from John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, the fourth son of Edward iii.

(ii) The **Yorkists** took their names from the fact that Edward iv. was descended from Edmund, Duke of York, the fifth son of Edward iii.

15. Deposition of Henry VI.—York with 3000 men reached St. Albans, where Henry and Somerset lay encamped. The royal army was defeated, and Somerset was killed. This, the first Battle of **St. Albans**, was the first battle in the Wars of the Roses, and was fought on the 23d of May 1455. Other battles were fought at **Bloreheath** in 1459, and at **Northampton** in 1460. In the last battle the king was defeated, and the Yorkists called a Parliament at London. The Duke of York claimed the crown as the descendant of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, and the lords admitted the claim ; but at length the dispute was settled by a compromise somewhat similar to that made between Stephen and Henry ii. in 1153. Henry vi. was to reign during his life, and Richard of York was to take the title of Prince of Wales, be regent of the kingdom, and afterwards to succeed him ; Edward, the only son of Henry, being thus set aside. But Queen Margaret's fierce opposition to this arrangement led to further hostilities ; and war again broke out. The Duke of York was killed in the battle of **Wakefield**, on the last day of 1460 ; and his head, encircled with a paper crown, was set upon the walls of the city of York. Another battle was fought at **Mortimer's Cross**, in the beginning of 1461, between the young Earl of March, the eldest son of the Duke of York, and Owen Tudor (who had married Henry v.'s widow Katharine), in which Tudor was routed with great slaughter. Meanwhile, Queen Margaret, with her victorious army, was marching upon London ; but, at St. Albans, she found her advance checked by the Earl of Warwick ; and the second Battle of St. Albans took place. The Queen beat Warwick, rescued her husband, and resumed her march to London. But the Earl of March with his army was also

First Battle
of St.
Albans
1455.

making his way to that city. On the 3d of March 1461, he was joined by the Earl of Warwick ; and both marched into London and summoned a Parliament, which declared the Earl of March King under the title of **Edward IV.** Thus the gentle, weak-minded Henry was deposed ; but, though he had reigned for so many years, he had in reality never ruled.

(i) **Owen Tudor** was taken prisoner : and March, in revenge for the death of his father, cut off his head, and placed it on the highest step of the market-cross at Haverfordwest.

(ii) The young Earl of March was welcomed by the Londoners as the "White Rose of Rouen."

(iii) **Henry VI.** was, though sometimes feeble in mind, "a ripe scholar and a liberal promoter of education and science." He founded Eton College, and King's College, Cambridge. The poet Gray, in his "Ode on a Distant Prospect of Eton College," mentions it as the place

"Where grateful science still adores
Her Henry's holy shade."

16. The Work of Parliament.—In the year 1430 a change of the greatest importance was made in the mode of electing the members for the county, or - as they were called—**knights of the shire.** Up to this time, they had been elected by the County Court ; and all freeholders or landowners, however small, were admissible to this Court either in their own persons or by attorney (that is, by some person to represent them). The County Court was, in fact, still the **folk-moot** or general assembly of the people, and was really the local parliament of the county. But now, in the ninth year of **Henry VI.**'s reign, the election of the knights of the shire was regulated, and the right of election strictly limited to persons who possessed freeholds worth at least forty shillings a year. This had the effect of disfranchising all the small landowners called **copyholders** ; and it also deprived villeins of all reasonable hope of ever having a vote for the county.—Another change took place in 1437. Parliament, in several previous reigns, had demanded the right of appointing the Privy Council ; but, in the above year, it gave up that right, and allowed the king the absolute and unchallenged right of nomination.—In the last year of **Henry VI.**'s reign—that is, in 1461, Parliament made a distinct step in the direction of more power. Instead of sending up its bills to the king in the form of petitions, it sent them up in the form of **Statutes.** which could not be altered

This step had the important result of preventing the king's advisers from changing the wording of any statute, or from introducing into it "saving clauses," or from manipulating it in any other fashion.

(i) The **Privy Council** or "King's Continual Council" became "again a mere instrument in the hands of the king or the Court, and was often in opposition to the Parliament or to the men by whom the Parliament was led"—**STUBBS**.

(ii) "Great landowners, who had crowds of armed retainers in their service, bribed and bullied juries till the administration of the law became a farce; and, on the rare occasions when this course failed, they knew how to vindicate their claims by maiming or assassinating their opponents, or by laying siege to houses, the possession of which they coveted"—**GARDINER**.

17. Great Men.—In the early part of Henry VI.'s reign, much the ablest statesman was **John, Duke of Bedford**, the third son of Henry IV., and therefore uncle to the king. Next to him comes **Cardinal Beaufort**; and another prominent, though far from able man, is the next uncle, **Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester**. Later on, we find **William de la Pole**, Earl of Suffolk, the chief adviser of Queen Margaret; **Richard, Duke of York**, the aspirant and—for a time—the heir-apparent to the throne; **Richard Neville**, the Earl of Salisbury—a prominent supporter of the Yorkist policy; and his son **Richard Neville**, the **Earl of Warwick**, who grew so powerful in the State that he was spoken of as the "King-maker."

18. Social Facts.—Though the Members of Parliament of this time were allowed four shillings a day, and though every proper means was used to protect them in the course of their deliberations, yet it was not always safe to go to the meetings of Parliament, and it was not always easy to find candidates for the honour of sitting there. The Parliament that met at Leicester in 1425 was called the "**Parliament of Bats**," because the members took "great bats" or cudgels in their hands to protect themselves with.—**Gunpowder** and siege-cannon came into very general use during this reign,—both in the wars in France, and in the Wars of the Roses.—On the Continent, the discovery of the art of **printing**—an art the value of which cannot be overrated—made a strong sensation. Faust first printed the Psalter from wooden blocks in the year 1442; Gutenberg went a step further and cut types from metals in 1444; and Schaeffer went still further and cast types in moulds.

"When it was cried through the town that all men should leave their weapons,—that is, their guns and bucklers, bows and arrows, in their inns; the people took great bats in their hands, and so they went. The next day they were charged that they should leave their bats at their inns, and then they took great staves in their bosoms and sleeves; and so they went to the *Parliament of Bats*."

Bat is an English word connected with *beat*. The name is still used in cricket.

19. Scotland, 1436-1460.—James II. succeeded his father at the age of six, and was crowned at Holyrood, in Edinburgh. After the coronation, his mother took him up, for greater safety, to the fortress on the high rock in the middle of the city, which goes by the name of Edinburgh Castle. The two strongest men in Scotland at this time were—**Crichton**, the governor of Edinburgh Castle; and **Livingstone**, the governor of Stirling Castle, the second great stronghold of Scotland, which had been built to overawe and check the Highlands. These two men entered upon a struggle for the wardship of the young king—an office that gave almost royal power to the man who could succeed in holding it. At length an agreement was made between them that James should reside at Stirling. Crichton and Livingstone had found themselves compelled to unite their powers, in the presence of the enormous and ever-growing strength of the house of Douglas. This house reached the zenith of its power under William, the sixth Earl. This powerful baron travelled about Scotland with an escort of a thousand knights, in more than royal splendour, and wielded within his own borders a rule which was absolute and unquestioned, and which indeed set the royal powers at defiance. He was also Duke of Touraine, and by his French possessions was much richer than any king of Scotland had ever been. Crichton and Livingstone invited William and his brother David to dine with the young king in Edinburgh Castle; had them arrested at the dinner-table, taken to the block upon the green outside, which had been made ready for them, and beheaded without formality or trial. This was in 1440.

(i) James II. was crowned at Holyrood, as it was felt that Scone was a little too near to Perth and the Highlands.

(ii) The Douglas family was the best beloved in Scotland. They were genuine Scotsmen—"children of the soil;" they had lived in Scotland long before the Norman barons came; they had always been ready to fight for the freedom and independence of Scotland; and Lord James Douglas had been the bosom friend of Robert Bruce, who had instructed him to carry his heart to the Holy Land. Archibald, fourth Earl of Douglas, formed an alliance with France in 1423, and was created Duke of Touraine.

(iii) The murder of the Douglasses at Edinburgh Castle was called the **Black Dinner**. Another murder followed. William, the eighth Earl, was invited to meet King James II. at Stirling Castle, was offered a safe-conduct, came to Stirling, dined with the king, and was murdered after dinner.

20. James II. of Scotland.—In 1452, the power of the Douglasses had again become dangerous to the Crown; and William, the eighth Earl, was asked to dinner at Stirling, and stabbed by the king himself in the course of a violent quarrel. Such was the “short and easy method” of a Scottish king with a too powerful noble. But the “Red Douglas” family, under the Earl of Angus, arose upon the ruins of the “Black.” During the struggle between the Yorkists and Lancastrians, James saw there was a good chance of winning back the towns which the English still held in Scotland; and he therefore laid siege to Roxburgh. Here, for the first time in Scotland, artillery was used; and James was killed by the bursting of one of the large cannon, which had been overloaded.

Glasgow University was founded in 1451.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF HENRY VI.'s REIGN.

1422. John, Duke of Bedford, Protector of the Realm.	1445. Henry marries Margaret of Anjou
1423. Battle of Crevant.	1450. (a) Suffolk executed.
1424. Battle of Verneuil.	(b) Jack Cade's Rebellion.
1424. Peace with Scotland. James I. sent back.	1453. (a) Death of Talbot.
1429. Siege of Orleans raised by Joan of Arc.	(b) Loss of France.
Henry crowned at Westminster. Protectorate ceases.	1454. Richard, Duke of York, Protector
1430. Election of Knights of the Shire restricted to freeholders of forty shillings a year.	1455. First Battle of St. Albans. Death of Somerset.
1431. (a) Joan of Arc burnt.	1459. Battle of Bloreheath.
(b) Henry VI. crowned at Paris.	1460. Battle of Northampton.
1435. (a) Congress of Arras.	1460. Battle of Wakefield. York killed.
(b) Death of Bedford. Duke of York now Regent of France.	1461. (a) Battle of Mortimer's Cross.
	(b) Second Battle of St. Albans.
	(c) Edward, Duke of York, declared King.

CHAPTER IV.

EDWARD THE FOURTH

(FIRST KING OF THE HOUSE OF YORK)

Born 1442. Succeeded (at the age of 19) in 1461. Died 1483.

Reigned 22 years.

EDWARD OF ROUEN was the son of Richard, Duke of York, and his wife Cecily Neville, daughter of the first Earl of Westmoreland. He was descended from Edward III. through his grand-parents; but his claim to the throne of England came through Lionel, Duke of Clarence, the third son of Edward III. (The rival house of Lancaster was descended from the fourth son, John of Gaunt.) Edward IV. was born at Rouen. While his father lived, his title was Earl of March; and he kept this title down to the year 1460. He married, in 1464, Elizabeth Woodville, the daughter of Lord Rivers and Jacquetta of Luxembourg, whose first husband was the Duke of Bedford, Regent of France. Their eldest son was Edward V.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

SCOTLAND: JAMES III. FRANCE: LOUIS XI. CASTILLE: FERDINAND and
ISABELLA.

1. **Edward IV., 1461-1483.**—The young king was only nineteen. He was called to the throne by the Parliament on the 4th of March 1461, and crowned on the 28th of June. In a week after his proclamation¹ as King, he was in the field against the Lancastrians, and met them at **Towton**, near Tadcaster, in Yorkshire. On both sides there were about 60,000 men. No quarter was to be asked or given; and if we consider the numbers engaged as well as the obstinacy of the struggle, we must call this the greatest battle that had ever been fought in England since the Battle of Hastings. On

¹ Generally uttered by heralds at the most public places—the cross etc., of towns.

the morning of Palm Sunday, the 29th of March 1461, in a dim cold dawn, in the middle of a thick blinding snowstorm, the two armies joined battle. The snowstorm won the battle for the Yorkists; for it flew in the faces of the Lancastrian bowmen, and spoilt their aim. For six hours the battle raged with desperate bravery; and then 33,000 men lay dead upon the field. It is still called in the country "Palm Sunday Field." The triumph of the Yorkists was complete; and, the day after, the axe of the executioner finished the work which the sword of the knight had begun. By this battle, the wide and fertile Plain of York fell into the hands of Edward; and this immensely increased his power in the North of England. Margaret and Henry, who had been waiting in York for the news of the fight, fled into Scotland.

(i) The wind and snow were in the faces of the Lancastrian bowmen: and their arrows fell short. The Yorkists waited till their quivers were empty; marched close up to them; poured in volley after volley, and then fell upon them sword in hand.

(ii) The snow was dyed crimson as it lay. The Wharfe ran red with blood. The dead lay unburied for two or three days over a space ten miles long (up to the very gates of York) and half a mile broad

(iii) The **Parliament** summoned to meet after this victory passed a **Bill of Attainder** against Henry VI., Margaret, and their adherents.

2. Henry VI. in Prison.—In 1464 the Lancastrians sustained a double defeat at **Hedgely Moor** and **Hexham**, and the queen and her son were in the greatest distress. They were set upon by highway robbers, and only escaped from them during a distribution of the plunder. They fled into the depths of the forest; but here another robber met them, when the Queen, taking courage from despair, boldly declared who she was, presented her boy, and cried, "I trust to you the son of your king." The robber guided them in safety across the border. Henry himself was retaken by the Yorkists, mounted on horseback with his feet tied to the stirrups, led thrice round the pillory, and then thrown into the Tower.

(i) The **Lancastrian cause** was supported chiefly by the great barons of the North; the **Yorkists** were favoured by the South, by the trading and industrial classes. The rough soldiers of the North were greatly feared by the Londoners for their cruelty and plundering.

(ii) "A desire for a strong government to put an end to the anarchy arose, not merely in the breast of the peasant and the labourer, but amongst stout country

gentlemen who wished to keep the lands which had descended to them from their ancestors, and amongst tradesmen who wished to enjoy in peace the profits of their industry. When, therefore, the baronage, torn by its intestine divisions, broke out into wild civil war, the wishes of all those who had no interest in the perpetuation of confusion gradually turned to the Yorkist party as affording a hope of better things."—GARDINER.

(iii) Henry was fairly well treated when in the Tower, which at that time was a palace as well as a fortress.

(iv) The Commons granted Edward, in 1463, the wool-tax and also tonnage and poundage for life; and thus made the king independent of Parliament.

(v) Edward made truces with Scotland and France; and treaties of peace and trade with Burgundy, Brittany, Castile, Poland, Denmark, etc.

3. The Nevilles.—Richard Neville, Earl of Salisbury,—and by marriage afterwards Earl of Warwick,—had all along been the chief supporter of Edward. He was the greatest and richest nobleman in all the realm,¹ and he was in some respects more powerful than the king upon the throne. He was Lieutenant of Ireland, Captain-General of Calais, Captain of Dover (the lock and key of England), Warden of the Western and also of the Scottish Marches, Lord Chamberlain, and Lord High Steward. His brothers and relations filled other high offices. Thirty thousand retainers lived at his different castles; "when he came to London, he held such a house that six oxen were eaten at a breakfast;" and when he came to Parliament, he came accompanied by six hundred armed men in his own livery. "He could raise armies at his call from his own earldoms." Edward had secretly married **Dame Elizabeth Grey** (born **Woodville**),—the widow of Sir John Grey, an adherent of the Lancastrian party,—whose beauty had overcome him when she was pleading to him for the grant of the forfeited estates of her husband. In 1464 he publicly avowed their marriage. The court was now filled with Woodvilles, and court society was loud with the quarrels and jealousies, the intrigues and counterplots, of the Woodvilles and the Nevilles.

(i) Wherever Warwick went, he kept a kind of "open house;" and all inns and taverns were at his service. "Every tavern was full of his meat, for who that had any acquaintance in that house, he should have had as much sodden and roast as he might carry upon a long dagger." His income amounted to 80,000 crowns a year.

(ii) Warwick's two daughters were the greatest heiresses in England. Isabel, the elder, was married to the Duke of Clarence (brother of Edward iv.), a Yorkist; Anne

¹ Kingdom. *Realm* is the Norman-French form of *royaume*.

was betrothed to Edward, Prince of Wales (the son of Henry VI.), a Lancastrian. Thus Warwick thought he had secured his power on both sides.

(iii) **George Neville**, Warwick's youngest brother, was Chancellor and Archbishop of York; his third brother, **John of Montague**, had received the properties and titles of the Percies, and was now Earl of Northumberland.

4. The Revolt of the Nevilles.—The profusion with which offices, honours, and estates were showered upon the new family offended the Earl of Warwick, who had hitherto enjoyed a monopoly of these bounties. Warwick's dissatisfaction was shared by his son-in-law, the Duke of Clarence, the king's own brother; and Warwick, the "King-maker" as he was called, now resolved to place Clarence upon the throne. Taking advantage of a rising of the peasants in Yorkshire, Clarence and Warwick joined this body. After a few skirmishes and battles, they were obliged to flee to France. Here Warwick met his old enemy, Queen Margaret, became reconciled with her, and married his daughter Anne to the young Prince Edward. But his chances of the crown were thus lost to the "false, fleeting, perjured Clarence,"¹ who therefore in his secret mind resolved to support his brother and to spoil the plans of Warwick. On the 13th of September 1470, Warwick and Clarence landed at Dartmouth; and, as their army marched into the country, the standard of the King-maker was joined by enormous numbers. King Edward, "who was never concerned at anything, but still followed his hunting," was taken by surprise, and obliged to mount and flee for his life to France, and with him his younger brother Richard, Duke of Gloucester. King Henry was brought out of the Tower, where he "had not been so cleanly kept as should seem such a prince," arrayed in fresh royal robes, and led to the palace of Westminster. Edward found shelter with his brother-in-law, the Duke of Burgundy; but, on the 14th of March 1471, he suddenly returned with a small force of two thousand men, landing at Ravenspur, the very place where Henry of Bolingbroke had landed on a like errand and under similar circumstances, seventy-two years before. But, though his force was small, he had a new weapon called a "hand-gun," which was destined to turn the bow entirely out of use.

(i) Warwick always leant to the king of France. Edward preferred an alliance with the Duke of Burgundy, who was even more powerful than France, and whose

¹ Shakespeare's "Richard III.," l. 4.

Court was the most magnificent in Europe. Edward therefore married, in 1468, his sister Margaret to **Charles the Bold**, the son of Philip the Good, Duke of Burgundy.

(ii) Among the odder turns of events in this reign, Edward was himself for a short time a prisoner in Middleham Castle, Yorkshire, in the hands of Warwick's brother, the Archbishop of York. Thus "England was in the extraordinary condition of having two kings, both captive in different places, under the charge of one earl!"

5. Death of the King-maker.—Clarence now deserted Warwick and returned to the side of his brother; and on Easter morning the two hostile armies met on Barnet Heath, near London. The battle began by the king's orders between four and five in the morning, in a dense mist. The left wing of the Yorkists was beaten, and broke and fled; but the king knew nothing of it, and fought on for six hours, until Warwick and seven thousand Lancastrians lay dead upon the field. Thus ended the Battle of **Barnet**, "a medley of mistake, carnage, and treachery." The King-maker was dead, and the bodies of him and his brother were sent to St. Paul's to be shown to the people. The very day of this battle (April 14) Queen Margaret landed at Weymouth, and on Easter Monday she heard the news of her defeat. "She, like a woman all dismayed," says an old writer, "for fear fell to the ground;" but, by the advice of her friends, she met the king in battle once more—on the 4th of May at **Tewkesbury**. It was a terrible and bloody fight; the queen's army was utterly defeated, and she herself captured. Richard, Duke of Gloucester, the youngest brother of the king, and afterwards Richard III., first won distinction for himself in this battle. The queen's son, poor young Prince Edward, when hard pressed in the fight, uttered a cry for mercy, which the king answered by a blow in the face with his iron gauntlet, while his brothers fell upon him and stabbed him. The queen remained in captivity for five years, until she was ransomed by the king of France; and King Henry VI. died in the Tower—murdered, some said, by the hands of this Richard, Duke of Gloucester.—With the Battle of **Tewkesbury** (1471) ended the Wars of the Roses. The great barons had almost all been killed, the great houses—especially those of the North—were rooted out, and more than half the nobility perished by the sword or by the axe. The cry of King Edward in battle had always been "Kill the nobles and spare the commons!"

(i) Margaret at first made for the lowest bridge over the Severn—the bridge at Gloucester; but that town belonged to the Yorkists. She therefore had to march further up the river—to Tewkesbury.

(ii) Richard, Duke of Gloucester, afterwards Richard III., led the attack at Tewkesbury.

(iii) When Edward fled to Flanders, he was so ill-provided that he “was forced to give the master of the ship for his passage a gown lined with martene.”

(iv) When the king fled to Flanders, the queen took refuge in the Broad Sanctuary at Westminster, where her son, Edward V., was born.

The right of protection, if a person in danger seizes “the horns of the altar,” is as old as Moses. Every cathedral and abbey and many churches in England had the right of “Sanctuary.” At first this belonged only to the altar; then to the church itself; and then to the buildings within a limit round the church which was marked off by clear boundaries.

6. Edward's Government.—In this reign Parliament hardly ever met, and the king's power was almost absolute. The grants of the Commons had made him independent of Parliament; and, besides, the enormous wealth which the confiscations¹ of the Lancastrian estates poured into the royal treasury made the king extremely rich, and he never needed to go to them for money. At one time Edward held nearly one-fifth of the land of all England. Then he was also a great merchant, and traded in tin and wool and cloth with the ports of the Mediterranean. The money granted for a war with France, which was never carried out, was quietly put into his own pockets, and served to swell his already enormous wealth. A fourth method of raising money was by means of forced loans, which were termed with grave humour “benevolences.” The merchants of the city of London and the wealthy men of the kingdom were summoned before him, and each was requested or “invited” to make him a present or benevolence. But the worst of all his ways of money-making was his interference with the coin of the realm. “King Edward,” says an old writer, “changed the coin of England, by which he had great getting,”—that is, he decreed that the old Noble, which was only worth six shillings and eightpence, should be called a Réal and pass for ten shillings. The three-and-fourpence of difference he put into his own treasury.—And thus the rule of Parliament, and its management of the business of the country, were almost entirely suspended in the reign of Edward IV.

Parliament sat for forty-two days in 1478. This Parliament condemned the Duke of Clarence to death for treason. He was put to death in the Tower; but how, is not known.

¹ Putting into the *fiscus* or treasury.

7. The Invasion of France.—After the Battle of Tewkesbury there was peace for three years in England, and Edward was growing tired of this repose. A war with France was always popular in England, and the king resolved to revive the old claims on the French crown. On the 20th of June 1475, he set sail from Sandwich with 1500 men-at-arms, 15,000 bowmen, and a great number of foot-soldiers and artillery. Large “benevolences” had been presented to the king; but, to the intense disgust of the knights and soldiers, the invasion ended before it had well begun. Louis XI., king of France, one of the most crafty diplomatists that ever lived, had not the smallest wish or intention to fight; and, by the Treaty of Pecquigny,¹ Edward was to receive an annual pension of seventy thousand crowns, and to return quietly home. A bridge was thrown across the Sonme; and the two kings meeting midway, shook hands through a wooden grating, and swore to observe the terms of the treaty. The disappointed soldiery made up for their loss of plunder in France by pillaging their own countrymen at home; but the king himself accompanied the judges to try the offenders, and hanged without mercy every man who was apprehended for the smallest theft.

Treaty of
Pecquigny
1475.

(i) Louis XI. not only gave Edward a yearly pension, he also paid all expenses of the expedition, gave 50,000 crowns as a ransom for the Dowager-Queen Margaret, and bribed heavily the chief members of the King’s Council.

(ii) Edward was now not only able to “live off his own,” but he could keep around him a large guard of stout yeomen.

8. Death and Character of Edward.—Clarence, Edward’s brother, was summoned before his peers² on a charge of sorcery and high treason; and Edward himself appeared against him. He was tried, found guilty, and sentenced to be beheaded; but, about ten days after, it was announced that he had died in the Tower. An old story, which has little foundation, has always circulated that he was offered a choice of deaths, and chose to be drowned in a butt of malmsey;³ but this may have been only one way of putting the statement that his wine was poisoned. Edward, who had grown enormously stout, and feeble both in mind and body, fell into a paroxysm of rage upon hearing that the king of France had deter-

¹ Near Amiens.

² Equals: in this case, the Lords.

³ A rare and expensive French wine

mined to break one part of his contract. He at once gave orders to prepare for war ; but a few days after he fell ill, and died on the 9th of April 1483.—Edward was a man of the most consummate political ability ; but he was pitiless, cold-blooded, and treacherous. As a young man, he stood by and saw old grey-headed nobles hurried to the block and beheaded before his own eyes. His manners were thoroughly good-humoured and full of personal charm ; but when his anger was roused, he was fierce and unrelenting. Fearless and without care, it required a great emergency to rouse him ; but, when he was roused, he showed an iron will and an inflexible determination. His whole life, however, was tainted with the love of gold, of blood, and of vice.

(i) Edward was taller by the head than any man in his court. He told Philip de Comines, the French historian, that he had been in nine battles, and that he had fought on foot in eight of them.

(ii) “His personal beauty, his success in war, the familiarity of his manners, his splendid household, and the share which he allowed himself to take in the commercial enterprise of the day, endeared Edward to the burgher class.”—FRANCK BRIGHT.

(iii) “He sat and judged on his own King’s Bench, and talked familiarly with the people.”

The Earl of Warwick is generally known as the “Last of the Barons,”—that is, he was the last of those powerful feudal chiefs whose bands of personal retainers amounted to small standing armies, and whose revenues exceeded those of royalty itself.

The Wars of the Roses utterly broke down feudalism, and one-half of the nobles had lost their lives in the battles. Edward is said to have put to death fourteen hundred persons of high rank.

LIST OF BATTLES IN THE WARS OF THE ROSES.

1. First Battle of St. Albans, Hertfordshire (Somerset killed), 1455	7. Battle of Towton, Yorkshire (Lancastrians defeated), . . 1461
2. Blore Heath, Staffordshire (Duke of York victorious), . 1459	8. Hedgely Moor, Northumberland (Queen defeated), . . . 1464
3. Northampton (Earl of Warwick victorious), 1460	9. Hexham, Northumberland (Henry made prisoner), . . 1464
4. Wakefield Green (Duke of York is killed), 1460	10. Barnet (Earl of Warwick killed), 1471
5. Mortimer’s Cross, Herefordshire (Edward victorious), . . . 1461	11. Tewkesbury (Queen taken prisoner, and her son Prince Edward put to death), . . 1471
6. Second Battle of St. Albans (Queen victorious), . . . 1461	12. Bosworth Field, Leicester (Richard III. killed). . . 1485

9. Great Men.—By far the most prominent man in the reign of Edward IV. was the **Earl of Warwick**, “the King-maker.” It is on his good or bad relations with Edward that the whole course of events during the reign turns. **Edmund, Duke of Somerset**,¹ the chief supporter of Queen Margaret and her policy, who was beheaded after the Battle of Tewkesbury, had much to do with the policy of this reign. The **Duke of Clarence**, Edward’s younger brother, cannot count for very much; but, if a son had not been born to the king, he might have ascended the throne. **Earl Rivers**, the father of the queen, and a great friend of William Caxton, the first English printer, is also worthy of notice. But the “rising man” at the close of the reign was beyond all doubt **Richard, Duke of Gloucester**.

¹ A son of the Edmund, Duke of Somerset, who was killed at St. Albans (1455).

10. Social Facts.—In spite of the Civil Wars, and notwithstanding the pestilence which raged in 1479, commerce increased greatly during the reign of Edward IV. This was due chiefly to the good order Edward kept in the country and the stern justice he meted out. The king was himself a merchant, and personally popular with the merchant class. “The commerce of England,” says Creasy, “grew to a far greater height than it had ever before attained; and the general condition of the trading classes was remarkably prosperous.” In and by the Wars of the Roses, the turbulent barons had been killed off; those who remained were too poor to disturb the peace of the country; the industrial and commercial classes were thoroughly protected and even encouraged; and, henceforth, the kings of England were to be the friends and patrons of the Commons, and the enemies of the feudal barons. Ships as large as of 900 tons burden were built. In the City of London, the guilds of Ironmongers, Merchant Taylors, Carpenters, Cloth-workers and others, obtained royal charters and became corporate bodies. But by far the most striking social event in this reign was the introduction into England of the art of printing by **William Caxton** in 1477. This event did more for England than all the battles of kings or the statutes of parliaments. The first book printed in this country was “The Dictes and Sayings of the Philosophers.”

(i) Postal communication was established between London and Edinburgh by changes of horsemen every twenty miles; and a letter thus reached the capital of Scotland in four days. This “regular post” had been established by Richard, Duke

of Gloucester (afterwards Richard III.), when he was Governor of the North, and was making war on Scotland.

(ii) **William Caxton** was born in 1422, "in Kent in the Weald." He was a mercer. In 1470 he entered the service of Margaret, Duchess of Burgundy, and sister of Edward IV. At Ghent, in 1474, he produced the first English book that ever was printed. It is a collection of the "Stories of Troy." The second English book ever printed was the "Games and Playe of the Chesse." Both these were printed abroad. Edward IV. and Richard III. were hearty patrons of Caxton's; and Earl Rivers and Tiptoft, Earl of Worcester, were his friends, and also translated books for his press.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF EDWARD IV.'s REIGN.

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p>1461. (a) Edward IV. succeeds.
(b) Battle of Towton.</p> <p>1464. (a) Battle of Hedgely Moor.
(b) Battle of Hexham.
(c) Edward marries Elizabeth Woodville.</p> <p>1468. No Parliament (for about four years).</p> <p>1470. (a) Warwick flees to France.
(b) Lands at Dartmouth
(c) Edward flees to Flanders.
(d) Restoration of Henry VI.</p> | <p>1471. (a) Edward lands at Ravenspur.
(b) Battle of Barnet.
(c) Battle of Tewkesbury.
(d) Death of Henry VI.</p> <p>1475. (a) No Parliament (for eight years—except one sitting of forty-two days in 1478).
(b) Treaty of Pecquigny.</p> <p>1479. The Sweating Sickness.</p> <p>1483. Death of Edward IV.</p> |
|---|---|

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p>1467. Death of Philip the Good, Duke of Burgundy. Charles the Bold succeeds.</p> <p>1477. Charles the Bold defeated and killed at Nancy, in the east of France.</p> <p>1478. Lorenzo the Magnificent ruler of Florence.</p> | <p>1479. Ferdinand king of Arragon. Union of Castille and Arragon.</p> <p>1483. (a) Martin Luther born.
(b) Louis XI. of France dies.
(c) Charles VIII. succeeds.</p> |
|---|---|

CHAPTER V.

EDWARD THE FIFTH (OF WESTMINSTER)

**Born 1470. Succeeded (at the age of 12) in April 1483. Deposed
June 1483. Died 1483. Reigned 2 months.**

EDWARD V. OF WESTMINSTER was born in the Sanctuary at Westminster on the 3d of November 1470—the year his father fled to Flanders to ask help from his brother-in-law, the Duke of Burgundy. He was the elder son of Edward IV. and his Queen (Elizabeth Woodville). Edward V. never “ascended the throne—was never crowned;” he was only brought to London, and there became the centre of plots. He died, probably murdered, in 1483, at the age of twelve. (He would have been thirteen had he lived till November.)

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

SCOTLAND : JAMES III. FRANCE : CHARLES VIII. SPAIN : FERDINAND
and ISABELLA.

1. **Edward V., April 9—June 25, 1483.**—This reign is the short reign of a crownless king. It lasted only eleven weeks and one day, and the ceremony of coronation never took place. At the time of his father's death, the young prince, then only twelve years old, was residing in Ludlow Castle, on the Marches of Wales, where Lord Rivers, his maternal uncle, one of the most accomplished men of the time, and a great friend of Caxton the printer, was directing his education. On his road to London he was met by Richard, Duke of Gloucester, and Henry Stafford, Duke of Buckingham, the chiefs of the party opposed to Lord Rivers and the Woodvilles, and conducted by them to London. All his mother's friends and those belonging to the Woodville party were arrested; and the poor little boy “wept and

was nothing content, but it booted¹ not." Lord Rivers and his friends were conveyed to Pontefract Castle; and there, a few weeks after, without any charge brought against them, or any form of trial whatever, they were put to death at the block. The queen, upon hearing the news of her son's falling into Gloucester's hands, fled with her second son and her five daughters to the sanctuary at Westminster; Edward v. was lodged in the Tower, but in the palace and not in the prison; and the Duke of Gloucester was proclaimed **Lord Protector of the Realm**. Buckingham was made Constable of England; all the royal castles were put into his hands, and power to call out the whole of the people in arms was also granted him.

The young Prince was met at Stony Stratford, one of the places on the Roman road called Watling Street.

2. Gloucester's Action.—Lord Hastings was the brother-in-law of Warwick the King-maker, had been a favourite of Edward iv., and was now a member of the Great Council which managed the affairs of the kingdom during the minority of the king. June 26th had been fixed as the day of coronation of the young king; but, before the day came, Gloucester contrived to put Hastings out of the way; and to come to a complete understanding with Buckingham. The fact is, that Lord Hastings was faithful to Edward v.; and therefore Gloucester, who probably all along had his eye on the crown, wanted him out of the way. Cardinal Bouchier, the Archbishop of Canterbury, the great-uncle of the king, was sent to the queen in Westminster sanctuary to persuade her to allow the young Duke of York to be with his brother. Gloucester had now both boys in his possession, his enemies were beheaded, and the way seemed clear.

(i) Probably the English nation, dreading a long minority, and the plots and quarrels certain to go on between rival factions, were not sorry to see a capable man like Richard take forcible possession of the powers of the realm.

(ii) "On the 13th, Gloucester appeared at a council in the Tower 'with a wonderful sour countenance.' The Protector, after a little while, asked what they were worthy to suffer who compassed his destruction, to which Hastings replied, 'Certainly, my lord, if they have so heinously done, they be worthy heinous punishment.' 'What,' quoth the Protector, 'thou servest me, I ween, with *ifs* and *ans*;² I tell thee they *have* so done, and that I will make good on thy body, traitor.' And therewith,

¹ That is, "*it was of no use.*" The verb *boot* is a form of an older word *betan*, to make *bet* or *good* and we have *bet* in the word *better*, and *boot* in *booty*, *bootless*, etc.

² An old-fashioned word for *supposing*.

as in a great rage, he clapped his fist upon the board a great rap; at which token given, one cried '*Treason!*' without the chamber. Therewith a door clapped, and in came rushing men in harness,¹ as many as the chamber might hold. And anon the Protector said to the Lord Hastings, 'I arrest thee traitor!' 'What! me, my lord?' quoth he. 'Yes, thee, traitor!' quoth the Protector. Then they were all quickly bestowed in divers chambers, except the Lord Chamberlain,² whom the Protector bade speed and shrive him³ apace. 'For, by St. Paul,' quoth he, 'I will not to dinner till I see thy head off.' It booted him not to ask why, but heavily he took a priest at adventure,⁴ and made a short shrift, for a longer would not be suffered,—the Protector made so much haste to dinner, which he might not go to till this were done for saving of his oath. So was he brought forth into the green beside the chapel within the Tower, and his head laid down upon a long log of timber and there stricken off."⁵

3. Deposition of Edward V.—Gloucester's next step was to employ Buckingham, who was his tool, to induce the citizens of London to get up a petition, entreating him to accept the crown; and on the 22d of June, Dr. Ralph Shaw, the brother of the Lord Mayor of London, preached a sermon at St. Paul's Cross, in which he maintained that these children were illegitimate on the ground of a previous contract of Edward iv. with Lady Eleanor Butler, and that the Lord Protector was the rightful heir to the crown. Two days after, a number of Lords and members of the House of Commons waited on the duke at Baynard's Castle, where he was lodging, and desired him to take upon himself "the office and title of king;" the arrangements for Edward's coronation were made use of for that of his uncle; and Richard, with his wife, Anne Neville, was crowned at Westminster on the 6th of July 1483.

(i) The Lords and others called their petition to Richard "The Choice and Prayer of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal and the Commons of England;" and in this document they desired that he would take the kingship, "the children of Edward iv. being illegitimate, those of the Duke of Clarence attainted, and the blood of Richard, Duke of York, remaining uncorrupt only in the person of Richard the Protector, Duke of Gloucester."

(ii) If the Duke of Clarence, who was older than Richard, had not been attainted, his son, the Earl of Warwick, would have been heir to the throne.

4. Scotland.—James III. (1460-1488) succeeded his father in 1460; but the management of affairs was in the hands of Bishop Kennedy of St. Andrews, and of the king's mother, Mary, the

¹ Armour.

² Lord Hastings.

³ Confess himself to a priest.

⁴ The first priest that happened to be in the way.

⁵ From Sir Thomas More's *History of Richard III.*

daughter of the Duke of Gueldres. But Mary of Gueldres died in 1463, and Kennedy in 1466 ; and the chief power fell into the hands of a strong and rising family, called the *Boys*. Lord Boyd seized the young king at Linlithgow, carried him off to Edinburgh Castle, had his own eldest son created Earl of Arran, and married him to the king's sister Mary.—The overlordship of the Western Isles was still in the hands of the kings of Norway ; but Scotland held them on condition of paying a yearly rent. For many years this rent had not been paid ; and now an arrangement was come to, by which the young king should marry Margaret, the daughter of King Christian, her dowry being the arrears of rent and a sum of sixty thousand florins ; for which sum the Orkney and Shetland Isles were to be placed as pledges in the hands of the king of Scotland. This sum was never paid ; and thus these islands became, in 1469, a part of the Scottish kingdom, and have remained so ever since.

5. James III. of Scotland.—The king quarrelled with his brother Alexander, Duke of Albany, who fled first to France, and afterwards to the English court. Edward IV. took his side, and made an agreement with him that he should marry his daughter, the Lady Cecily, and that Albany should be placed on the throne of Scotland. In the year 1482, James raised an army to invade England, and marched at the head of it as far as Lauder Bridge in Berwickshire. The Scottish nobles, with whom James had never been popular, on account of his liking for favourites of low birth, saw their opportunity, and met together to devise a plan for getting rid of these favourites. The most detested of them was Robert Cochrane, who had once been a stone-mason. No one seemed able to carry out any suggestion, when Archibald, Earl of Angus, rose in the assembly and said : “ Never fear, I’ll bell the cat.”¹ His allusion was to the old fable of the cat and the mice. At that moment Cochrane himself knocked at the door ; he was admitted, seized, insulted, and arrested, and the same afternoon he and the other favourites were hanged over Lauder Bridge.—The king continued to grow more and more unpopular, and the lords formed a confederacy, collected an army, declared James deposed, and put James the Prince of Scotland at their head ; the king also called together an army, and the two forces

¹ Hence his nickname of *Archibell-the-Cat*.

met at Sauchieburn, in Stirlingshire. The day was going against the king, he turned and fled ; he was thrown from his horse and carried to a mill near Bannockburn, where the dagger of an assassin in the disguise of a priest put an end to his life in June 1488.

(i) The **Duke of Albany**, James III. s brother, had promised Edward IV., if he were placed by him on the throne of Scotland, to hold his kingdom as a fief of England, to cede the town of Berwick, and to marry one of Edward's daughters. Richard, Duke of Gloucester, along with Albany, led an army as far as Edinburgh, where Albany became reconciled with James.

(ii) **Berwick** was actually ceded, and has been an English possession ever since.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF EDWARD V.'s REIGN.

1483. May 4, Gloucester made Protector.

June 13, Hastings beheaded.

June 16, Richard, Duke of York, the king's younger brother, sent to join him in the Tower.

June 25. (a) Gloucester is offered the Crown.

(b) Deposition of Edward V.

CHAPTER VI.

RICHARD THE THIRD

(OF GLOUCESTER)

Born 1450. Succeeded (at the age of 32) 1483. Died 1485.

Reigned 2 Years.

RICHARD OF GLOUCESTER was the third son of Richard, Duke of York, who fell in the Battle of Wakefield in 1460. This Duke of York was descended from Lionel, Duke of Clarence—the third son of Edward III. Lionel's daughter, Philippa, married Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March; and the Duke of York was Philippa's great-grandson.—In 1473, Richard married Anne Neville, the widow of the murdered Prince of Wales, the son of Henry VI. (It was said that Richard murdered him with his own hand.) There was only one son of the marriage—Edward, Prince of Wales, who died in 1484.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

SCOTLAND: JAMES III.

FRANCE: CHARLES VIII.

1. Richard III.—Richard had married Anne Neville, the widow of the very Prince Edward (the son of Henry VI.) whom he had himself killed after the Battle of Tewkesbury. Edward's brother Clarence, who wished to keep for himself all the Warwick estates, had hid her in his house and forced her to take the disguise of a kitchen-maid; but Richard diligently sought her out, married her, and shared with her the vast properties of the Warwick family. After their coronation, the king and queen made a royal progress through the kingdom, and were everywhere loyally received; and to please the people of the north, with whom Richard was very popular, he and his queen were crowned a second time in York Minster.

2. The Two Princes.—Richard's throne could hardly be deemed secure so long as Edward and his brother were alive ; and, though nothing is certainly known of their fate, there is little doubt that Richard had them put out of the way. They were placed in the Tower ; and they were never seen again.

(i) The story goes—but it is a story which was set afloat by Richard's enemies—that Brackenbury, the constable of the Tower, refused to put the young princes to death ; and that Richard commanded him to hand over the keys and his commission for twenty-four hours, to Sir James Tyrrel. During the twenty-four hours, Tyrrel's groom, John Dighton, and Miles Forrest, another servant, went up to the princes' bed-chamber, while Tyrrel waited below, and murdered the two children by smothering them in their beds ; and they buried their bodies at the foot of the stairs.

(ii) One seeming proof of the truth of this story, is the fact that, in 1674, in the reign of Charles II., nearly two hundred years after, the bones of two young children were found under the staircase of the White Tower. The "*Chronicle of the Grey Friars of London*," writing of the first year of Richard III., mentions their death in this simple way : "And the two sons of King Edward were put to silence."

(iii) The princes' own relations and many of the great nobles did not believe that they were dead. Many asserted that they had escaped from the Tower and were in hiding. This widespread belief was one of the causes of two attempts on the part of pretenders in the course of Henry VII.'s reign.

"I have heard by credible report of such as were secret with his chamberers, that after this abominable deed, Richard never had quiet in his mind : he never thought himself sure. When he went abroad, his eyes whirled about, his body privily fenced, his hand ever on his dagger, his countenance and manner like one always ready to strike again. He took ill rest at night, lay long waking and musing ; wearied with care and watch, he rather slumbered than slept. Troubled with fearful dreams, suddenly sometimes he started up, leapt out of his bed and ran about the chamber."—SIR THOMAS MORE. (See also Shakespeare's Richard III. Act v. 2, 11.

3. Revolt of Buckingham.—Buckingham had been the chief friend and supporter of King Richard ; and Richard was in the habit of loading with benefits all who served him. But a quarrel arose between the two : Buckingham joined the party of the malcontents and raised the standard of rebellion in Wales ; but, soon after, having been taken prisoner, he was put to death at the block without form of trial. The rallying centre of this malcontent party was **Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond**, who had fled from England, and had taken refuge in Brittany. He was the only descendant of the old House of Lancaster, and indeed belonged to a royal line by both sides. On the side of his father, he was the grandson of Katharine, the widow of Henry v., who had married the Welsh gentleman **Owen Tudor** ; on his mother's side, he was a great-great-grandson, through the line of the Beauforts, of John of Gaunt. Richmond had embarked in his

fleet to join Buckingham with a small army ; but a storm arose, and drove him back upon the coast of France. Richard now made a progress through the west of England, where the Lancastrian cause was strongest ; and in the course of his progress reprimanded and punished many of the insurgents, but, with the far-seeing policy of a new ruler, took care to pardon many men.

(i) *Buckingham* sought refuge with an old retainer of his own in Shropshire, Ralph Banister, who gave him up to the Sheriff of the County. The price set on Buckingham's head was £1000, or an estate worth £100 a year ; and this sum was probably equal in value to £12,000 at the present day.

(ii) Among those who suffered was William Collingbourne, who had been Sheriff of Wiltshire, and who had made and circulated a political rhyme upon the king and his advisers. The rhyme was this :

"The Cat, the Rat, and Lovel the Dog,
Rule all England under the Hog,"¹

But even so poor a rhyme was looked upon as a possible incentive to treason.

4. Richard's Government.—Richard to some extent owed his position as sovereign to Parliament ; and he accordingly hastened to restore to it the old power and the old liberties which had lain dormant during the reign of Edward iv. Parliament was at once summoned ; and though it sat for only one session during his short reign, a good deal of hard work was accomplished, and great improvements in legislation were introduced. The practice of extorting money by 'benevolences' was declared illegal ; many estates which had been forfeited were restored ; free trade in books between England and the Continent was established ; and the bondsmen upon the Crown domains were set free.

(i) Several good laws were passed by Richard's Parliament : (a) one against the collection of benevolences ; (b) another against the keeping of retainers (so as to weaken the power of the nobles) ; (c) a third, called the "Statute of Users," to forbid secret transfers of land ; (d) a fourth, called the "Statute of Fines," which secured the title of landowners. By his statute a fine paid to the court, with proper proclamation, was, after five years, a bar to all future claims. This act, at a time when so much land had, in the last three reigns, passed from hand to hand by forfeiture or attainder, was of the greatest value and importance. Fifteen acts in all were passed ; and all of great value.

¹ The *Cat* was *Catesby*, Chancellor of the Exchequer ; the *Rat* was *Ratcliffe*, an important Yorkist ; *Lovel* was the son of an old Lancastrian ; and the *Hog* typifies Richard himself, one of his cognisances being a white boar. Gray, in the "Bard," thus alludes to Richard, with reference to his badge, as the murderer of Prince Edward on the field of Tewkesbury :—

"The bristled Boar in infant-gore
Wallows beneath the thorny shade."

(ii) This Parliament of Richard III. was "the most meritorious national council for protecting the liberty of the subject, and putting down abuses in the administration of justice, which had sat since the time of Edward I."—**LORD CAMPBELL.**

5. The Coming of Henry Tudor.—If Richard had contented himself with improving the laws of the country, and earning a wide popularity by his just rule, he would probably have kept his seat on the throne to the end of his life. But he had felt insecure so long as Edward v. and his brother lived; the boy's disappearance and the suspicion that he was responsible for it, are said to have united the whole nation against him. Morton, bishop of Ely, seeing that even the Yorkists were falling away from Richard, advised Tudor to unite both parties in his favour by a promise to marry Elizabeth, the eldest daughter of Edward iv. This policy at once drew off friends from Richard, and made others lukewarm in his cause. Tudor set out with only three thousand Normans at his back; but then the Lancastrian party in England was very strong and closely knit together. He landed at Milford Haven on the 7th of August 1485, and marched in an easterly direction through Wales.

(i) Richard issued a proclamation against the Earl of Richmond, in which he called him "one Harry Tydder of base descent." He was certainly of base descent, as the Beauforts, the children of John of Gaunt and Katherine Swynford, were only legitimised by order of Richard II.

(ii) On the death of his only child, Edward, Prince of Wales (who died the very day twelvemonth of the accession of Edward v.,) Richard had nominated his nephew *John de la Poie*, the Earl of Lincoln, as his heir. Lincoln's father, the Duke of Suffolk, had married Elizabeth, sister of Edward iv. and Richard III.

6. Battle of Bosworth.—Richard had repaired to Nottingham as a central point; and when the news of his rival's landing reached him, he marched westward, until the two armies met on the 22d of August, near the heart of England, in the neighbourhood of Market Bosworth in Leicestershire. Richard had twice the number of men; but never was so great and decisive a battle fought with forces so very small. Before the battle began John Howard, Duke of Norfolk, received a warning against joining the king, a warning couched in a very rude rhyme:

"Jocky of Norfolk, be not too bold,
For Dickon thy master is bought and sold."

And bought and sold Richard indeed was; for Lord Stanley had been induced to come over to Henry's side. During the battle he

deserted and fought against his king ; and to add to the difficulty, the forces of the Earl of Northumberland would not stir a foot. Richard rode at the head of his troops on a white horse, in full armour, and with the crown fixed upon his helmet. Hardly had the battle begun when he saw it was lost ; but, with the tenacity of his race and the courage of despair, he cut his way through the enemy up to his rival, overthrew Henry Tudor's standard, and was at last killed, "fighting manfully in the thickest press of his enemies." His helmet was knocked off his head ; the crown had rolled away under a hawthorn bush ; Lord Stanley picked it up and placed it, amid the cheers of the assembled knights, upon the head of Richmond. Richard's body, stripped of his armour, "was trussed behind a poursuivant of arms, like a hog or a calf, the head and the arms hanging on one side of the horse, and the legs on the other side, and all besprinkled with mire and blood, was brought to the Greyfriars' Church at Leicester." And this was the last of Richard III., the last of the Plantagenets.

(i) Henry Tudor of Richmond was crowned on a low hill, which is called "Crown Hill" to this day. He adopted as his badge the "Crown in the May-bush."

(ii) "On that dreary moor of Bosworth ended the royalty of the great House of Anjou."

7. Character of Richard.—Richard was most probably a great statesman, who in an age of violence had been too ready to use violent means. He was only thirty-four when he died ; and there can be no doubt that he would have done much for the establishment of law and order in the country had he lived longer. He was not a "blood-supper and child-killer," as the Tudor party called him ; but neither did he scruple to put out of the way any man who opposed his plans, although, with a strange generosity, he was ever ready to extend pardon and favour to the wives and families of his political victims.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF RICHARD III.'s REIGN.

1483. (a) July. Disappearance of the two young Princes.

(b) Buckingham conspires with the Earl of Richmond and others against Richard.

(c) Buckingham in open rebellion in Wales. Is beheaded.

1484. (a) Parliament passes an Act abolishing benevolences.

(b) Edward, Prince of Wales, Richard's only son, dies.

1485. (a) Queen Anne, Richard's wife, dies

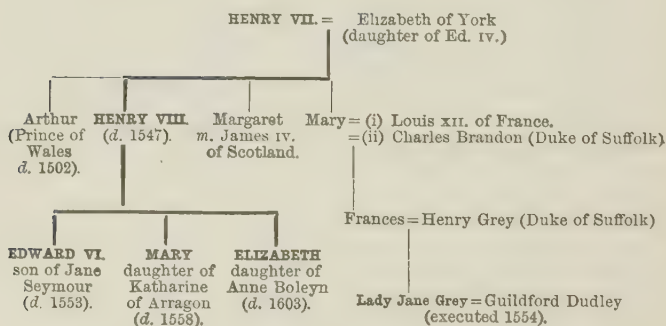
(b) Landing of Richmond.

(c) Battle of Bosworth.
Death of Richard

BOOK VI.

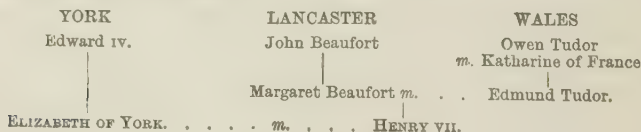
THE HOUSE OF TUDOR

GENEALOGY OF THE HOUSE OF TUDOR.



(i) Henry Grey was a great-grandson of Elizabeth Woodville, by her first husband, Sir John Grey.

(ii) The new connection between the Houses of York, Lancaster, and Wales, is shown in the following diagram:—



CHAPTER I.

HENRY THE SEVENTH

(HENRY TUDOR OF RICHMOND)

Born 1456. Succeeded (at the age of 29) in 1485. Died 1509.

Reigned 24 years.

HENRY TUDOR was born at Pembroke Castle in 1456. He was the son of Edmund Tudor, Earl of Richmond, who married Margaret Beaufort, the great-grand-daughter of John of Gaunt, by his third wife Catherine Swynford. Edmund Tudor was the son of a Welsh gentleman, Owen Tudor, who married Katharine of France, the widow of Henry v. Thus he was of royal blood on both sides; but the Beaufort line was really an illegitimate branch of the Lancaster family, though it had been legitimised by a Parliament of Richard II.'s reign. Henry VII. married Elizabeth of York—the eldest daughter of Edward IV. They had four children: Arthur, who died before his father; Margaret, who married James IV. of Scotland; Henry VIII.; and Mary, who married (i) Louis XII. of France, and (ii) Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk.

The Earl of Richmond took his title from *Richmond in Yorkshire*. The Richmond on the Thames was called *Sheen*, and received its later name from Henry VII.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

SCOTLAND.	FRANCE.	SPAIN.
JAMES III. to 1488.	CHARLES VIII. to 1498.	ISABELLA AND
JAMES IV.	LOUIS XII.	FERDINAND.

1. **Henry VII., 1485-1509.**—Henry Tudor had been a fugitive or an exile from his native land from the time when he was only five years of age. He passed most of his life in Brittany or in France; and his patient ability and subtle power of scheming gradually raised him to be regarded as the head of the Lancastrian party, both at home and abroad. He did not carry out his promise to marry the Princess Elizabeth of York, until Parliament, whose power was then amply

acknowledged, settled the crown in his own person and his heirs, "*and in none other.*" This last clause was added to exclude the Earl of

Henry VII. Warwick, a son of the Duke of Clarence, and any other
 marries
 Elizabeth of person who, by blood relationship, might be supposed to
 York have a prior and sounder claim to the throne of England.

1486. Henry accordingly married Elizabeth on the 18th of January 1486. All through his reign he showed himself a patient, wary diplomatist, always content to wait for the success that was sure to come at last. But though the king had married a Yorkist, he hated the Yorkist party, and had made up his mind to put them down and to keep them down in every part of the country. He revoked all grants of land that had been made to Yorkists in the course of the last thirty years, and thus put himself in possession of an enormous amount of property in different parts of the country.

(i) **Henry VII.**'s claim to the throne was like that of Henry IV., and rested on three grounds: (i) right of birth; (ii) conquest; and (iii) the choice or approval of Parliament. The first of these claims was not very sound, as two children of a nearer line were then alive—one, Edward Plantagenet, Earl of Warwick, the eldest son of the Duke of Clarence, who was older than Richard III.

(ii) The checks on the authority of the Crown at the accession of Henry VII. were:

- (1) The king could levy no new tax without the leave of Parliament.
- (2) No law could be made without the assent of Parliament.
- (3) No man could be thrown into prison without a legal warrant specifying clearly his offence.
- (4) A person accused on a criminal charge must be tried in a Public Court and by a jury of twelve men. If they are unanimous, there is no appeal.
- (5) An officer of the Crown, violating the liberty of a subject, can be sued for damages, and cannot plead even the direct order of the king.

2. The Era of Personal Rule.—A new era in English history begins with this reign—the **Era of Personal Rule**. The change which Louis XI. had introduced into France, which Ferdinand of Arragon was introducing into Spain, that change Henry Tudor also introduced into England. Everywhere in Western Europe, courts and royal cabinets were absorbing the power of chartered institutions and customary laws. Such changes were the natural outcome of the decay of the feudal system. The forces which, in the hands of the great barons and territorial magnates, tended to local quarrels, civil war, and national disintegration, were destined to be replaced by the growing power of the Crown, which was the agent for unifying the

country, protecting industry, and consolidating the commercial and intellectual progress of the people.

3. Lambert Simnel.—In the spring of 1487 appeared in Ireland a good-looking boy of ten, whom his friends declared to be Edward Plantagenet, the Earl of Warwick, escaped from confinement in the Tower. The Yorkists had always been popular in Ireland; Fitzgerald, Earl of Kildare, was governor at the time; he at once abjured Henry, and had this young man crowned at Dublin by the archbishop, under the title of Edward VI. Margaret, the widow of the Duke of Burgundy and sister of Edward IV. and Richard III., furnished Lord Lovel and the Earl of Lincoln¹ with money and troops to support him; and they sailed over to England with “a great multitude of Irishmen and Almains.”² They were met by Henry Tudor at Stoke-upon-Trent, on the 16th of June, and utterly overthrown. Lincoln and other leaders fell on the field; Lovel fled; the pretended Warwick, who was in reality one **Lambert Simnel**, the son of a joiner in Oxford, was taken prisoner and, with politic and contemptuous mercy, made a turnspit in Henry’s kitchen. “He turned a broach that had worn a crown;” and in course of time, by steady conduct and good behaviour, he was so fortunate as to rise to be royal falconer.

Lambert
Simnel.
1487.

(i) The Fitzgeralds had been promoted by Richard, Duke of York; and the House of York had always been very popular with the English of Ireland.

(ii) **Lambert Simnel** was a mere tool in the hands of the Yorkists. For (a) if they had taken the field in favour of the true Edward, Earl of Warwick, Henry would at once have put him to death; and (b) it became Henry’s interest to keep the true Edward alive, and thus to prove the person put forward a mere impostor. Had they succeeded, it was easy to put Simnel out of the way.

(iii) Henry publicly exhibited Warwick to the people in a procession from the Tower to St. Paul’s; and he also allowed him to live at his Palace of Sheen.

4. Invasion of France, 1492.—The Duke of Brittany, who had been the staunch friend and preserver of Henry, was in 1487 threatened with invasion by the king of France, Charles VIII.; and he naturally looked for help to Henry, who, indeed, owed to him his life. The king went to Parliament for supplies of money, which were voted. He also extorted large “benevolences” from rich

¹ This was John de la Pole, a son of Edward IV.’s sister and a nephew of Richard III., who had been declared by him his heir.

² *Germans*. The French call Germany *Allemagne*.

persons; but he had no real intention of making war. All he wanted was to make money. At last, in 1492, he took a "Siege of Boulogne." formidable army over to Calais, laid siege to Boulogne for 1492. a few days, made peace for a large sum of money, and came back again. He had been bought off by the king of France with a purse of £149,000. Thus, in addition to the grant by Parliament, he put in his pocket the gift of France.

5. Henry makes Money.—Henry had three chief aims in life, all of which seemed to help each other. These were: to put down the Yorkists and the rich barons—that is, to destroy the feudal system, and concentrate power in the Crown; to rule as much as possible without Parliament; and to make money, by fair means or by foul. He had discovered even more ways of making money than Edward IV. Subsidies granted for the support of war he put into his own pocket; he revived the odious system of "benevolences;" he laid claim to lands which had long been in the possession of others; and he punished the nobles with fine and forfeiture, whenever the smallest opening or opportunity presented itself. Cardinal Morton, whom he had made Archbishop of Canterbury, his chancellor and favourite minister, assisted him in all these vile undertakings. It was he who, in the plenitude of his cleverness, invented a dilemma which went by the name of "**Morton's fork.**" Rich and poor nobles were equally plundered; for, he said, those who lived plainly and frugally had evidently saved money, and those who lived extravagantly and on a grand scale were as evidently wealthy, and could therefore afford to help the king. He made the transfer and sale of land easy; and thus the wealthy merchants and middle-class people bought up many estates from the impoverished nobles. The king carried his money-making schemes so far, that one historian has called him "a royal swindler;" but this good came out of them, that the old spirit of war and violence was thoroughly put down.

"If Cardinal Morton was informed that a nobleman or gentleman lived in good style, with a great show of gold and silver plate, and a great array of servants and retainers, he would send for him and say quietly to him: 'I hear you are a very rich man; I am delighted to know that you are so wealthy: it is quite plain you can afford to spare for the king a large benevolence. But, if the nobleman lived in an obscure fashion, with few servants and no display, the other prong of the fork was

presented to him: 'My Lord, you are, I see, a most thrifty and careful person; you must have saved up a great deal of property: you are certainly able to give the king a good benevolence.'

6. The Invention of Gunpowder.—Another remarkable circumstance also gave him supreme power over his nobles, and this was the introduction of artillery. "The invention of gunpowder," says a great historian, "ruined feudalism." The reason is plain. It was useless for the knight or baron to dress himself in heavy armour when a bullet could go through it; and, with a gun in his hand, the weak man is just as powerful for wounds or death as the strongest. The only artillery-train in the kingdom belonged to the king; and the greatest baron, with the largest following, was powerless against the heavy guns of the royal artillery.—The king also amassed large treasures by the dowries paid to his sons on their marriage; and much of this and other money he invested in portable property—that is, in jewels and precious stones. This was for the purpose of being able to carry his wealth easily, if the worst should happen and he should have to flee from his kingdom.

(i) "The introduction of gunpowder ruined feudalism. . . . Without artillery, an army (collected by a baron) was now helpless; and the one train of artillery in the kingdom lay at the disposal of the king."—GREEN.

(ii) "His desire for getting jewels scarcely knew any bounds; and on these alone he spent £110,000."

7. Retainers.—The Statute of Liveries and the statutes against **Maintenance** were enforced with the most strenuous rigour. One amusing example is given by Lord Bacon in his "History of Henry the Seventh." The king was entertained for several days in the most sumptuous and magnificent manner, by the Lancastrian Earl of Oxford at his castle at Henningham. When the king was taking his leave of the Earl the castle servants stood in their livery coats and badges, ranged in long rows on both sides, making a lane for the king. The king started a little and said, "By my faith, my Lord, I thank you much for your good cheer; but I may not endure to have my laws broken in my sight. My attorney must speak with you." And the attorney-general did speak with the Earl, and the result was a fine of £10,000.—Thus the king by his exactions at once enriched himself on the one hand, and broke the power of the nobles

on the other ; and this enormous wealth of his enabled him to rule without the help of Parliament, which met as seldom as it could.

(i) **Maintenance** did not mean supporting or feeding these retainers, but *maintaining* or supporting their quarrels and their causes in the courts of law. The retainers of a nobleman wore his badge or his livery.

Livery (French *livrer*, to give) consisted generally of a cloak and cape given every year.

(ii) Not more than thirty of the old nobles were left alive from the Wars of the Roses ; and Henry was determined that no one of them should accumulate any formidable power.

8. Perkin Warbeck.—In the year 1492 there again appeared in Ireland, where the house of York had always been very popular, a new claimant to the throne, who styled himself **Richard Plantagenet, Duke of York**. He gave himself out as the second son of Edward iv., whose life, he said, had been spared when his brother, Edward v. was put to death. According to the Tudor party, he was a person called **Perkin Warbeck** of Tournay. He landed in Cork from a small merchant vessel which had sailed from Lisbon, and the mayor and townsfolk went mad with enthusiasm about him. He then crossed over to Flanders, where the Duchess Margaret received him as her nephew with open arms, and bestowed upon him the name of the “White Rose of England.” At her court he remained for three years, and Henry was all this while in a state of constant anxiety about him and his claims. Many of the Yorkists went over to

Perkin Warbeck 1492. Flanders to pay their court to him and to join him ; but others sent as their agent Sir Robert Clifford, who, for a sum of £500 out of Henry’s private purse, betrayed his cause and gave up the names of his friends and adherents. Among these names was that of Sir William Stanley, now Lord Chamberlain, who had rendered good service to Henry upon the field of Bosworth. All that Stanley had said was, that if this young man should prove to be the real Richard Plantagenet, he would not fight against him. But this was quite enough for Henry, who was glad to find a pretext for forfeiting the enormous wealth and the vast estates even of an old friend. In 1496 “Richard Plantagenet” paid a visit to Scotland, where James iv. received him with the greatest cordiality, styled him Richard iv., and gave him in marriage a kinswoman of his own, the beautiful Lady Katherine Gordon. In the following year, Richard landed in Cornwall, where he knew the people to be disaffected to

the king; and, being joined by large numbers of the people, he seized the strong position of St. Michael's Mount, and pushed forward into Somersetshire. At Taunton he heard that Henry was approaching with a strong army; and, taking fright, he fled on horseback into the New Forest, where he took sanctuary at the abbey of Beaulieu.¹ Here he was induced to surrender, on condition that his life should be spared; and his wife became an attendant in the court of the queen. He himself was placed in the Tower, along with the young Earl of Warwick, who was so ignorant that he hardly knew one bird or beast from another; but in 1499 both of them were accused of high treason, tried, and executed: Warwick beheaded within the Tower, and Warbeck hanged and quartered at Tyburn.² "One fierce and strong wave," says an old chronicler, "swallowed both their lives."

Warwick
and
Warbeck
executed
1499.

(i) Henry requested the Archduke Philip to turn Warbeck out of Flanders. On his refusal, Henry expelled all Flemings from England, and removed the market for English wool from Antwerp to Calais.

(ii) By the execution and forfeiture of Stanley, Henry put in his pocket £40,000, in addition to very large estates.

(iii) The people of Cornwall were disaffected because they had been asked to pay a tax for the protection of the North of England against the attacks of the Scotch. Their view was that each county ought to pay its own war expenses.

(iv) Ferdinand of Arragon, the father of Katharine, had refused to allow his daughter to marry Prince Arthur, "as long as a doubtful drop of royal blood remained in England." Hence the eagerness to get rid of the Earl of Warwick.

9. Two Important Marriages.—In 1501 the king married his eldest son Arthur, who was only fifteen, to Catalina, the youngest daughter of Ferdinand of Arragon and Isabella of Spain, but generally known in England as Katharine of Arragon. Arthur had received his name in memory of the fact that the king believed himself to be descended from the great British chieftain, King Arthur; but the descent is, of course, extremely doubtful. Arthur died five months after his marriage; and the king was now in great terror lest he should have to return the dowry of the princess, which was very large, amounting to two hundred thousand gold crowns. But Henry advised a cunning

Arthur
marries
Katharine
of Arragon
1501.

¹ Pronounced *Bewley*.

² *Tyburn* is the *burn* or *brook* called *Tye*, which flowed into the Serpentine, through a district now covered with houses, and called *Tyburnia*.

plan to escape this very unpleasant necessity. He obtained a dispensation from the Pope to legalise the union with the wife of a brother, and betrothed the youthful widow to his second son Henry (afterwards Henry VIII.), who was at the time only eleven years of age. This was the second base crime in connection with this Spanish marriage ; for Ferdinand of Arragon had said plainly that he would not listen to any marriage-contract so long as the Earl of Warwick lived ; and so the hapless earl was put out of the way. Long after, Katharine sorrowed over this marriage more than any one, and often remembered with anguish that it had been "begun in blood."—The second marriage was that of the king's eldest daughter Margaret with James IV. of Scotland, in 1502. These two marriages were, as

Margaret
marries
James IV.
1502.

far as their consequences are considered, the most important events of Henry's reign. From the Spanish marriage sprang great changes both in home and in foreign policy ; from the Scottish marriage came the union of the two kingdoms under one crown, and the cessation of war between them.

Henry VIII. did not marry Katharine of Arragon till after he had succeeded to the throne.

10. Empson and Dudley.—During the last thirteen years of Henry's reign Parliament was, as we have seen, called together only once. Henry had far more effective and far more easy means of raising the money he so dearly loved. His chief instruments in this perpetual quest were two lawyers, Richard Empson and Edmund Dudley (barons of the exchequer), who applied all the ingenuity which their knowledge of the law and their natural talent gave them to extort fines and lands from the wealthy subjects of the king. One of their means was the employment of false witnesses, who were called "promoters," and who for a small sum of money would swear anything they were told ; and very few nobles or rich merchants escaped being ground at one time or another in "Empson and Dudley's mills." These two men suggested also the alteration of the monetary standard ; the compromising of offences for money ; the revival of old laws, so that fines might be exacted for their transgression ; and the systematic bribery of the judges, so that they should always give their decisions in favour of the king and the king's pocket.

(i) **Empson** and **Dudley** were called by the people the "King's horse-leeches and skin-shearers."

(ii) They had other modes of extorting money, as; (a) Large sums had to be paid for "Charters of Pardon;" (b) Jurymen were heavily fined for bringing in erroneous verdicts; (c) Spies, called "promoters" or "quest-mongers" were set to find out fully offences, and either demand "hush-money" or large fines; (d) Corporations and Trade-guilds had to pay enormous sums for the maintenance of their ancient rights.

11. The Death of Henry VII.—On the 21st of April 1509, Henry died at his palace of Sheen, which he called after his old title, **Richmond**, and which he had rebuilt with great splendour. He was buried in Westminster Abbey, in the magnificent chapel which he had himself erected. He died after amassing nearly two millions of money, and earning "the great hatred of his people," and his character is written with sufficient plainness and unmistakable breadth in the many base acts of his reign.

Death of
Henry VII.
1509.

(i) The exact sum left by Henry VII. was £1,800,000, a sum in the purchasing power of that period more than equal to £18,000,000.

(ii) Sir Thomas More, in the Introductory Discourse to his "Utopia," has the following sarcastic reference to the grasping avarice of Henry VII.: "All the counsellors agree and consent together that no abundance of gold can be sufficient for a prince who has to keep and maintain an army: furthermore that a king, though he would, can do nothing unjustly. For all that men have, yea, and the men themselves also, are all his. And every man hath so much of his own, as the king's gentleness hath not taken from him."

12. Scotland.—James IV. of Scotland supported the claims of Perkin Warbeck, received him at his court with great favour, treated him as Richard, Duke of York, and gave him in marriage Lady Katherine Gordon, a kinswoman of his own. But Henry VII. immediately proceeded to countermine Warbeck, and at last succeeded in marrying his eldest daughter, Margaret Tudor, to James in 1502. From this marriage sprang the union of the two crowns of England and Scotland—one hundred and one years after—in the person of James I.—The lordship of the Isles, the Western Isles or Hebrides of Scotland, was finally broken up in 1504 by the capture of Black Donald (*Donald Dhu*), a descendant of the last Lord of the Isles.—Under James IV. Scotland first appeared as a naval power; and vast sums of money were spent upon the building of ships.

One naval captain, Andrew Barton, who had received letters of marque from the king empowering him to fight against the Portuguese, was not very careful in his

selection of ships, and captured English vessels whenever he had a chance. He was attacked by the English in time of truce, killed in the action, and his ship, the *Lion*, was taken to England, where it became the second ship in the English navy. The first was the *Great Harry*, a vessel of one thousand tons, which at that time was regarded as a ship of the most colossal proportions. It cost £14,000.

13. The Work of Parliament.—It was the policy of Henry VII. to be as independent of Parliament as he could, and to make monarchy as absolute in England as the temper of the English people would permit him to make it. And this his great wealth enabled him to do. His first Parliament granted him the duties on tonnage and poundage for life; he revoked, on his own sole authority, all the grants of Crown land, that had been made since 1454; and he put in his own pocket the property of the wealthiest among the Yorkists, whom he had ruined by the easy and ready means of bills of attainder. He was thus by far the richest prince in Christendom; and he had no need to apply to Parliament for money. Throughout his reign of twenty-four years, Parliament was called together only seven times; and, during the last thirteen years of the reign, only once. But adventurer as he was, he was too prudent a man to try to do without Parliament altogether. He induced Parliament in 1492 to countenance his extortion of benevolences; and, in 1495, a very sensible statute was passed which gave security of property to the subject who rendered obedience to the king on the throne for the time being. During most of his reign, Henry's letters-patent were just as valid as Acts of Parliament.

(i) In 1451, Henry VI. summoned fifty-three temporal Peers to Parliament; in 1485, Henry VII. could summon only twenty-nine. Such havoc had the wars of the Roses and the headsman's axe made among the barons.

(ii) It is with Henry VII. that **Modern History** begins, as opposed to **Medieval History**.

(iii) With Henry VII. also begins anew the struggle between the Crown and Parliament as to who shall have the keeping of the national purse.

(iv) The Ordinary Council of the King was revived under the name of the *Star Chamber*¹ in 1486; and all state offences were punished by it. It could inflict any punishment except death. This Chamber abolished *Maintenance*; and this was one of the last and heaviest blows at the sinking power of feudalism. It also strictly enforced the *Statute of Liveries*, by which each nobleman had to pay £5 a month for every retainer who wore his badge.

¹ The *Star Chamber* was a room in the royal palace at Westminster, set apart for the safe custody of *starrs*, a Hebrew word for *bonds*, left there by the Jewish merchants, who had otherwise no footing in law. This was first done in William the Conqueror's time.

(v) "As far as legislation was concerned, parliaments became mere instruments in the hands of Henry VII. The House of Lords had been thinned away by the recent massacres and executions; and the House of Commons was filled with men who had neither the power nor the will to be other than his humble servants."—GARDINER.

14. Great Men.—The most distinguished men during the reign of Henry VII. were Archbishop Morton, Sir William Stanley, and Sir Edward Poynings. Morton carried out, with unflinching determination and steady consistency, the twofold policy of Henry—to amass money, and to weaken the nobles of England. Sir William Stanley, with his brother, Lord Stanley, won Bosworth for Henry, who rewarded him with forfeiture and execution. It is to Poynings that we owe the famous statute for the government of Ireland Poynings' Law
1494. called **Poynings' Law**. By this law all acts of the English Parliament were to be of force in Ireland also; and the Irish Parliament was prohibited from passing or putting in force any law which had not received the sanction of the English Privy Council.

15. Social Facts.—The reign of Henry VII. is remarkable for some of the greatest events that ever happened in modern history—events which widened immensely the knowledge, the minds, and the imagination of men, and which opened up to them new worlds both within and without. The **New World** of the two Americas was discovered by Columbus and others; the road to India by sea was found out, and the dangers—from pirates in the Mediterranean, and robbers on land—of the overland route to the East were in this way avoided. The Mediterranean was no longer the centre of the known world; but a new Mediterranean opened before the commerce of the nations which is now called the Atlantic Ocean. The centre of commercial gravity passed from the Mediterranean nations to those that lay nearest to the Atlantic; and Spain, Portugal, Holland, and England began to show themselves the chief trading nations of the world. These were events that filled the minds of men with perpetual wonder. But a greater event, or, rather, an intellectual revolution, took place also in this reign. The **Revival of Learning** began in England. Constantinople had been the home of learning and literature and the capital of Greek and Latin scholarship up to the year 1453. In that year, this city was besieged and taken by the Ottoman Turks. The scholars fled, taking with them their books

and manuscripts—more precious than gold and jewels ; and passed on to Italy, Germany, and France. It was in Italy that they obtained the warmest welcome and the most noble hospitality ; and, from Italy, the New Learning passed on to England. An event greater than either—though it did not come so close to the minds and business of ordinary men—occurred also in this reign. This was the discovery of the Planetary System by the great astronomer Copernicus in 1507. This discovery, indeed, opened up infinite spaces and worlds to the mind of man. These great events—the discovery of America, the discovery of the new route by the Cape of Good Hope to India, the Revival of Learning,—accompanied by the inventions of printing and gunpowder,—form a record such as no other reign can show, and stand out as unmistakable landmarks of the border-line between Mediæval and Modern Europe.

“While England cowered before the horrors of civil war, or slumbered beneath the apathetic rule of Henry VII., the world around her was passing through changes more momentous than any it had witnessed since the victory of Christianity and the fall of the Roman Empire. Its physical bounds were suddenly enlarged. The discoveries of Copernicus revealed to man the secret of the universe. The daring of the Portuguese mariners doubled the Cape of Good Hope and anchored their merchant fleets in the harbours of India, Columbus crossed the untraversed ocean to add a New World to the Old. Sebastian Cabot, starting from the port of Bristol, threaded his way among the icebergs of Labrador. This sudden contact with new lands, new faiths, new races of men quickened the slumbering intelligence of Europe into a strange curiosity.”—GREEN.

(i) **Columbus** (Christopher Colon, 1445-1506) discovered Hispaniola, in the West Indies, in 1492.

(ii) **John and Sebastian Cabot**, Italians in the pay of Henry VII., in a Bristol ship with Bristol sailors, discovered the mainland of America in 1497.

(iii) Constantinople was taken by the Turks in 1453. Their treatment of merchants on the overland route to India was marked by every kind of cruelty, robbery, and extortion. Hence the strong desire of merchants to find a road to India and the East by sea ; and it was this motive that impelled Columbus and Vasco da Gama on their voyages. The one hoped to reach India by the west, the other by the east. **Vasco da Gama** doubled the Cape and reached India by sea in 1497.

(iv) The first man to teach Greek at Oxford was **Thomas Grocyn**, who learned it at Florence.

(v) The population of England was in this reign about 3,000,000. The two cities of London and Westminster had about 60,000 inhabitants between them ; and they were joined by a country-road lined with trees. This road—now called the **Strand**—is at the present day the most crowded thoroughfare in Europe. (There are now, in England, fifty-five towns with a population of more than 60,000 ; thirty-one of these have more than 100,000 ; and, of these again, fourteen have more than 200,000.)

(vi) “The reign of Henry VII. gave the English middle classes what they most needed, the protection of a firm government.”—GARDINER.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF HENRY VII.'s REIGN.

- | | |
|--|--|
| <p>1485. Henry VII. is crowned in London.</p> <p>1486. Henry marries Elizabeth of York.
(Union of the Red and White Roses.)</p> <p>1487. Lambert Simnel.</p> <p>1489. Henry sends an army to Brittany.</p> <p>1492. Perkin Warbeck.
Henry besieges Boulogne.</p> <p>1494. Poynings' Law in Ireland.</p> <p>1495. Statute of Liveries.</p> <p>1496. The Magnus Intercursus.¹</p> <p>1497. Sebastian Cabot, sent out by Henry</p> | <p>the Seventh, discovers the mainland of America.</p> <p>1499. Execution of Warbeck and Earl of Warwick.</p> <p>1501. Marriage of Arthur Prince of Wales, with Katharine of Arragon.</p> <p>1502. (a) Arthur dies.
(b) Henry, Prince of Wales, is engaged to Katharine.
(c) Margaret, eldest daughter of Henry VII., marries James IV. of Scotland.
(d) Treaty of Perpetual Peace with Scotland.</p> <p>1509. Death of Henry VII.</p> |
|--|--|

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.

- | | |
|--|--|
| <p>1492. (a) Moors driven out of Granada.
(b) Discovery of the New World by Columbus.
(c) Jews expelled from France, Spain, and Portugal.</p> <p>1497. (a) Sebastian Cabot discovers the mainland of America.
(b) Vasco da Gama doubles the Cape</p> | <p>of Good Hope, and discovers the sea-road to India.</p> <p>1498. Savonarola burnt at Florence.</p> <p>1499. East coast of South America discovered by Amerigo Vespucci, who gives his name to the whole Continent.</p> |
|--|--|

¹ The "Magnus Intercursus" was a great commercial treaty made by Henry VII. with the Duke of Burgundy (who was then ruler of Flanders), by which the Duke undertook to encourage English imports—wool, etc., and also to banish Perkin Warbeck from his dominions.

ENGLAND IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

1. **The Renaissance.**—The Fifteenth Century was an age of new light, and of an almost sudden awakening of the minds of men to the most astonishing facts. It has been sometimes called the “Age of Discovery of the World and of Man.” It discovered the world ; for the voyages of Columbus, Vasco da Gama, Cabot, and others, revealed to the astonished eyes and ears of Europeans the existence of the New World, of Southern Africa and of numerous islands in the ocean. It discovered man to himself—and the nature of his mind ; for it introduced the **New Learning**, and brought into Schools and Colleges the noble and polished literature of the Greeks and Romans. The poetry and philosophy of the Greeks, which had lain hidden for many centuries, was now eagerly read by every one who had leisure ; and scholarship took deep root in the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge.

2. **Trade.**—The fifteenth century saw great improvements and developments in the commerce of England. The seas had been made safe and cleared of pirates ; and the demand for English wool and other English products had been steadily growing. The merchants of England had been rising in rank and importance during the century ; and some of them were wealthier and more powerful than many of the members of the old nobility. The De la Poles of Hull, who lent very large sums to Edward III., intermarried with the royal family : and Henry Picard, a wine-merchant of London, gave a dinner in his own house, after the battle of Poitiers, to four kings, Edward III., King John of France, King David of Scotland, and the King of Cyprus. London itself was fast becoming one of the great ports of the world. Its chief exports were wool, hides, leather, and saddlery ; its chief imports, wines, silks, spices, dried fruits, and metals. Treaties of commerce had been made with Brittany, the Castiles, Portugal, Flanders, Florence, and with the great Hansa League of the Baltic cities. “Below Bridge”—which was the great port of London—might be seen lying the long galleys of Florence and of Venice, laden with the products of Mediterranean countries, the heavy luggers of Flanders, the strong-built ships of the Baltic Sea.

(i) The **Guilds** or **Craft-guilds** were at their height of power in the middle of this century, and soon after declined. They promoted the objects of their associations, trained young men, saw to the quality of the work done, kept prices from rising too high or sinking too low, and secured their members against poverty and distress.

(ii) The **Hansa League** was a league of merchants, first started in **London**, to protect their commerce. The other centres were **Wisby**, **Novgorod**, and **Bruges**; and their mutual defence was chiefly confined to the North of Europe. In **London**, it took the name of the **Steelyard**. It had at one time fleets and soldiers of its own.

3. Agriculture.—Villenage had been slowly dying out during this century; and the position of labourers slowly improved. Farmers and yeomen were also better off; as their “customs” or “customary rents” were no longer paid in kind—that is, in labour, or in shares of the corn or cattle on the farm,—but were paid in fixed sums of money; and thus the farmers worked with greater diligence and in better heart, for they felt that they themselves would be the chief gainers by their own hard labour.

4. Architecture.—The style of building most characteristic of the fifteenth century is that known as the **perpendicular**. This style was first made popular by **William of Wykeham** (1324-1404); but it became still more widely prevalent after his death. **King's College Chapel**, in **Cambridge**, **Eton College** (built by **Henry VI.**), **Henry VII.'s Chapel** at **Westminster** are among the best specimens of this style in **England**. As all the military power of the country was, at the end of the century, in the hands of the king, and as the nobles were obliged to keep the peace and obey the law, it was no longer necessary for the barons to build castles. Large manor-houses, of wood and stone, or of wood and brick, were built instead; and these were bravely decorated both within and without. In towns, the houses were built very close to each other, and with wide overhanging roofs—as is still the case in **Switzerland** and **Germany**—for the purpose of shade, as the climate of **England** was much hotter four hundred years ago than it is now.

5. Manners and Customs.—Sumptuary laws still prevailed; and the kinds and quantities of food, the material and shape were prescribed by law. Whether a man might wear cloth of gold, or velvet, or satin, or cloth, or canvas, how long his coat might be, whether it could be stuffed or not,—all this depended on express enactments. People, even the wealthier classes, rose at four or five in the morning, breakfasted at seven, dined at ten, and supped at four in the afternoon. But the interiors, and especially the floors, of most of the houses were very dirty. “The floors,” says **Erasmus**, the great Dutch scholar, “are mostly of clay, and strewed with rushes. Fresh rushes are periodically laid over them, but the old ones remain as an

abomination for perhaps twenty years together. The chief form of hospitality was, as it still is, the giving of dinners ; and a Venetian traveller tells us that a dinner would "last four hours or more."

6. Printing.—The first printing-press in England was erected in Westminster, in the year 1477, by William Caxton ; but, before that time, books had been reproduced by hand upon parchment or thick tough paper. The class of copyists were called **Scriveners**. These men wrote a strong, plain, clear, and regular hand, which was quite as easy to read as print, and which was a great deal more pleasant to the eye. The first English book produced by Caxton was a collection of the "Stories of Troy" ; the first English book printed in England was "the Dictes and Sayings of Philosophers." The Church saw plainly how important and influential the "new art" was destined to become ; and it obliged every printer to obtain a licence for the publication of every book he printed—a system which continued in England down to the time of Milton, in the seventeenth century.

(i) The word *Scrivener* came later to be applied to lawyers who drew contracts and agreements ; and, later still, to money-lenders. John Milton's father was a Scrivener of the former kind.

(ii) One of Milton's great prose-works is a pamphlet on licensing books, which he called "*Areopagitica : A Speech on the Liberty of Unlicensed Printing.*"

7. The English Language.—The accepted English for book and literary purposes had, in the fourteenth century, been the East Midland Dialect—that kind of English which Chaucer and his followers used. But the influence of other local dialects had by no means disappeared ; and Caxton himself was sometimes puzzled which word to use. What is called a "classical English" did not exist : *that* could only come after the labour and the polishing of great writers like Shakespeare, Bacon, and Milton. But the English of the fifteenth century differed from the English of the nineteenth in three respects.

(i) It contained more genuine English words, and fewer Latin words.

(ii) It still retained remnants of the old inflections. (iii) Its spelling was extremely different. And, speaking generally, we may say that there were larger changes, and more rapid changes, made during this century, in the organism of the English language, than ever took place either before or since. For it was a period of immense intellectual stir ; and the writers of books and the preachers of sermons were not restrained or limited by any settled standards of style or anything like a fixed or established book-English. They spoke and wrote at their own sweet will.

(i) "Perhaps the most rapid and remarkable change took place in the lifetime of William Caxton, the great printer, who was born in 1422 (died 1491). In his preface to his translation of the *Æneid* of Virgil, which he published in 1490, he says that he

cannot understand old books that were written when he was a boy—that ‘the olde Englysshe is more lyke to Dutche than Englysshe,’ and that ‘our langage now vsed varyeth ferre from that whiche was vsed and spoken when I was borne. For we Englysshemen ben borne vnder the domynacyon of the mone, which is neuer sted-faste, but euer wauerynge, wexynge one season, and waneth and decreaseth another season.’ ”

(ii) Again, to prove that different dialects were very powerful in England, and that “comyn englysshe that is spoken in one shyre varyeth from another,” he tells a story of some merchants who were wind-bound at the North Foreland, and went on shore to get some provisions. One of the merchants entered a house, and “axed for mete, and specyally he axyd after eggys.” But the good-wife replied that she ‘coude speke no frenshe.’ The merchant, who lost his temper at being mistaken for a Frenchman, insisted on having egg; but “she understoode hym not.” Luckily, a friend happened to come up; and he acted as interpreter between the two. The friend said that “he wolde have eyren; then the goode wyf sayde that she understoode him wel.” And then the simple-minded and perplexed Caxton goes on to exclaim. “Loo! what sholde a man in thyse dayes wryte, eggis or eyren?”

The Southern English for egg was *ey* or *ei* (like the German *ei*).

(iii) Such inflections as *en* for the infinitive (as *ben* for *be*; *fyghten* for the infinitive of *fight*); *eth* for the third person singular of verbs; and others, still remained.

(iv) Such spellings as *power* for *poor*; *style* for *still*; *shal* for *shall*; *wol* for *will*, are very common.

8. Literature.—There is no great or very prominent name in English Literature through the whole of this century. There was little prose except the chronicles written by monks or the memoirs of kings written by their heralds or their chaplains. By far the best prose, indeed, was that of Caxton himself, who edited and translated a large number of valuable books. The only two poets of the smallest note were **John of Lydgate**, who wrote the lives of some of the Saints, and the Story of Thebes, and **Thomas Occleve**, whose works are of little value. Much the truest and best poet of the time was James I. of Scotland, who, when detained a prisoner in Windsor Castle, wrote a beautiful poem about Lady Jane Beaufort, which he called the **King's Quhair** (*King's Quire or Book*). The best poetry of the century, however, consisted of the ballads which passed from mouth to mouth, and which were sung at wakes, fairs, weddings and other junketings. The best of these vigorous and racy productions “which smacked of the soil,” were **Sir Patrick Spens**, **Edom o' Gordon**, the **Nut Brown Mayde**, and the group which recounts the exploits of **Robin Hood** and his Merry Men.

(i) Lydgate's chief poems were the *Falls of Princes*, the *Storie of Thebes*, and the *Troye Book*.

(ii) Other famous Scottish poets are **Robert Henryson** of Dunfermline, and **Blind Harry**, a wandering minstrel, who wrote an epic poem on the deeds of William Wallace.

9. The New Time.—The end of the reign of Henry VII. marks the close of the period called the **Middle Ages**. New ways of

thinking, new ways of living, new manners and customs, new institutions both in Church and State, a "New Learning," and new ideas regarding religion, begin to make their appearance at the end of the fifteenth, and the beginning of the sixteenth, centuries. The changes of thought and manners were so rapid that there was less difference between the England of Alfred, in the ninth century, and the England of Edward I., in the thirteenth, than there was between the reigns of Edward IV., in the fifteenth century and of Henry VIII., early in the sixteenth.

(i) The population of England was in this century about four millions.

(ii) "The great houses fell, not by the accident of civil warfare, but because they deserved to fall; because they had been turbulent, aggressive, and tyrannical; because they had misused the strength of their position to oppress their inferiors in social rank with forms of law and without forms of law. The monarchy in the hands of Henry VII. stepped into their place because it was able to realise the promise of the elder monarchy, to dispense justice without fear or favour, to check the ascendancy of the rich over the poor, of the strong over the weak."—PROF. GARDINER.

PLAN OF DATES
FIFTEENTH CENTURY

1400 Conspiracy of Lords Appellant. Murder of Richard II. Rebellion of Glendower.	1401 Act <i>De Heretico comburendo</i> . The first execution (of Sir William Sawtre) for Lollard heresy in England.	1402 Battle of Homildon Hill.	1403 Conspiracy of Percies, etc. Battle of Shrewsbury.	1404 "Great and Common Council." The "Unlearned Parli" at Coventry.
--	---	----------------------------------	--	---

1410			Treaty of Troyes, Henry mar	
1411 "Retainers" prohibited by Parliament.	1412 Prince of Wales dismissed from the Council.	1413 Death of Henry IV. HENRY V.	1421 Third Invasion of France.	Den I. Du
1414 Execution of Sir John Oldcastle.	1415 Henry claims the French Crown. First Invasion of France. Battle of Agincourt.	1416 Henry allies himself with Burgundy. A lighted candle in a lantern to be placed at every door in London.	1424 Battle of Verneuil (secures communication with Brittany). Peace with Scotland. James I. sent back.	

1440			Execution of Suffe	
1441 Eton College founded.	1442 Henry marries Margaret of Anjou.	1443 Richard Duke of York Protector (Henry being insane).	1451 Loss of Bordeaux and Bayonne.	First Ba (The first in which blood a fell.
1444 The "Stories of Troy," the first English book printed.	1445 Clarence found dead.	1446 The Sweating Sickness.	1454 Benevolences abolished. Death of the Prince of Wales.	

1470 Edward flees to Flanders. Restoration of Henry VI.			1481 "Villanage almost extinct; but the free labourer is severely oppressed."	
1471 Battle of Barnet. Battle of Tewkesbury. Death of Henry VI.	1472 No Parliament (for about eight years) Treaty of Pecquigny.	1473 Lambert Simnel.	1484 Lambert Simnel.	Land E Battle Dea 18
1474 The "Stories of Troy," the first English book printed.	1475 Clarence found dead.	1476 The Sweating Sickness.	1487 Lambert Simnel.	

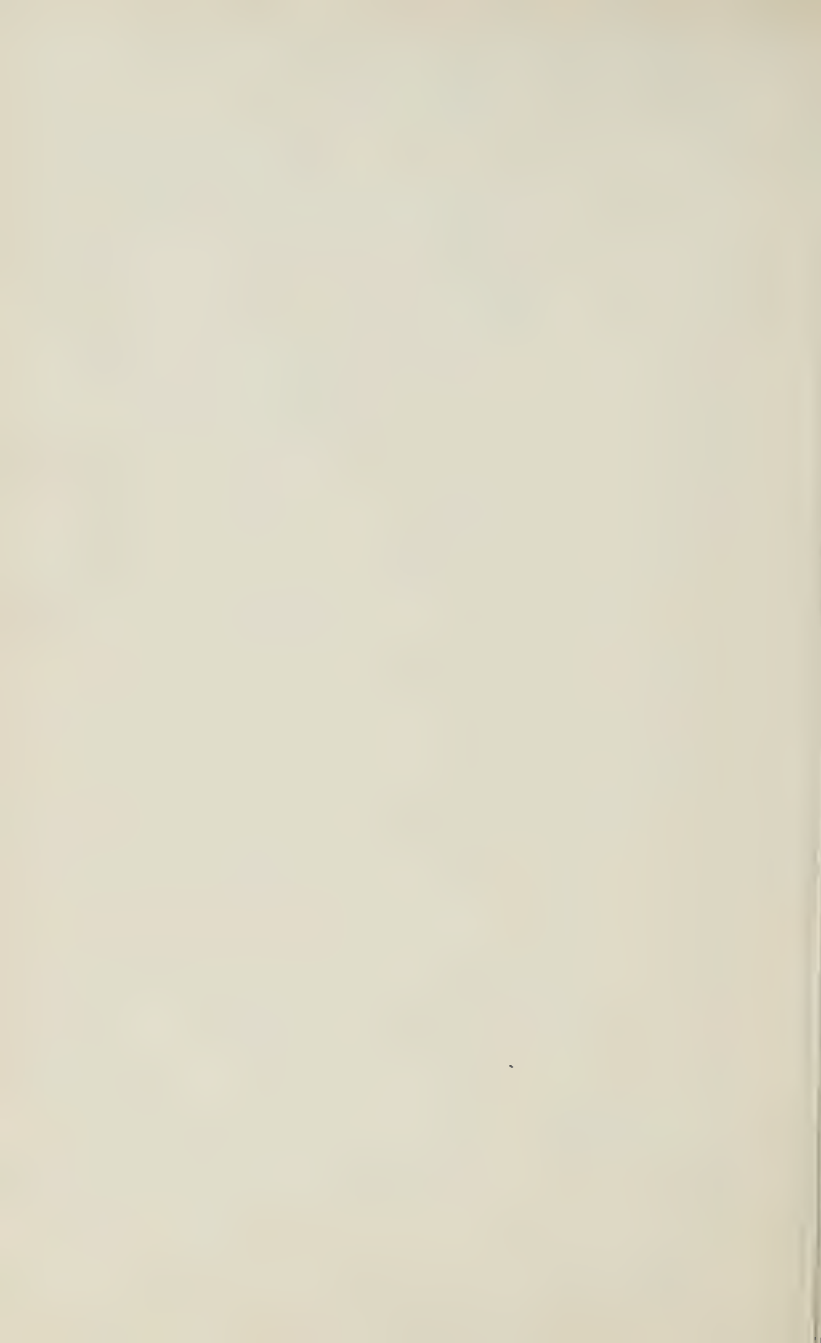
H CENTURY

1405	1406	1407	1408	1409
James of Scotland captured at sea.	The Commons demand an Audit of Accounts.	Money Bills to originate in the Commons.		Wycliffe's books condemned and burned.

1410 "The Great Peace." Treaty of Brétigny.		1430 Election of Knights of the Shire restricted to forty shilling freeholders. (First disfranchisement Act.)		
1423	Battle of Cravant (secures communication with Burgundy).	1431	1432	1433
1426		Joan of Arc burnt at Rouen. Henry VI. crowned at Paris.		
1429	Joan of Arc raises the siege of Orleans. Henry VI. crowned. Protectorate ceases.	1434	1435	1436
			Congress of Arras. Death of Bedford.	Paris taken by the French.
		1437	1438	1439

1440 Rebellion of Jack Cade.		1460 Battle of Northampton. Capture of Henry VI. Battle of Wakefield. York is killed.		
1453	Death of Talbot. Loss of France. Calais the only English possession in France.	1461	1462	1463
1456		Battle of Mortimer's Cross. Second Battle of St. Albans. EDWARD IV. declared King. Battle of Towton.		
1459	Battle of Bloreheath.	1464	1465	1466
		Battle of Hedgeley Moor. Battle of Hexham. Edward IV. marries Elizabeth Woodville.		
		1467	1468	1469
			No Parliament (for four years).	

1490				
1483	Death of Edward IV. EDWARD V. Deposition of Edward V. RICHARD III. Disappearance of the two Princes.	1491	1492	1493
1486	Henry VII. marries Elizabeth of York. (Union of the two Roses.)		Perkin Warbeck.	
1489		1494	1495	1496
		Poyning's Law in Ireland.	Statute of Liveries.	The Magnus Intercursus (a commercial and political treaty with Burgundy).
		1497	1498	1499
		Sebastian Cabot discovers America. Vasco da Gama finds out the way to India by the Cape of Good Hope.		Execution of Warbeck and the Earl of Warwick.



SHORT LIVES OF EMINENT PERSONS IN THE
HISTORY OF ENGLAND AND GREAT BRITAIN
EXPLANATION OF TERMS, ETC.



SHORT LIVES OF EMINENT PERSONS.

Alfred the Great (849-901) was crowned king of Wessex in 871. He gained many great victories over the Danish invaders, though at one time he was forced to hide for his life in the Isle of Athelney. He was even greater as a ruler than as a general. To him we owe the foundation of the Constitution and the first beginnings of a navy. He was the first of the "Makers of England."

Augustine, Saint, was sent by Pope Gregory the Great in 597 to convert the pagans of England. Ethelbert, who was then king of Kent, received him kindly and after a time accepted the Christian faith. In the year 600 the Pope made Augustine Archbishop of Canterbury. He died about 607.

Balliol, John (1259-1314) claimed the crown of Scotland along with Robert Bruce. Edward I. of England was called in to decide the dispute and pronounced in favour of Balliol, who did homage to Edward for his kingdom in 1292. He was very unpopular with the Scottish nobles and was at length forced by them into war with Edward. Being defeated at Dunbar, he resigned his crown. His mother piously preserved his memory by endowing Balliol College in Oxford.

Becket, Thomas (1118-1170), the son of a London merchant, obtained the patronage of Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury; by whose influence and his own abilities he rapidly rose into eminence both in Church and State. He became Henry II.'s Chancellor, and in 1162 was made Archbishop of Canterbury. By opposing Henry's encroachments on ecclesiastical privileges, he fell into disfavour; and some hasty words let fall by the king led to Becket's murder by four knights in Canterbury Cathedral.

Bede (672-735) is generally known as the Venerable Bede. He was a man of great learning, who wrote an Ecclesiastical History and translated into Anglo-Saxon the Gospel of St. John. He made Northumbria the successful rival of Wessex as the literary centre of Anglo-Saxon England—a position it retained till the Danes ravaged the country.

Canute, son of Sweyn, king of Denmark, invaded England and forced Edmund Ironside to yield up to him the country south of the Thames. In 1016 Edmund was murdered, and Canute ruled as sole king until his death in 1035.

Caxton, William (1412-1491), the first English printer, learned his art in the Netherlands; where he translated into English and printed the "History of Troy" and the "Game and Playe of the Chesse." About 1477 he came to England and established a press at Westminster, from which he issued sixty books.

Chaucer, Geoffrey (1340-1400), was the grandson of Richard Chaucer, a vintner in London.

Of his father nothing is known. The name *Chaucer* is found in the Roll of Battle Abbey. He served in France under Edward III., was taken prisoner, and freed at the Peace of Bretigny. He was sent on a mission to Italy, where he met Petrarch. He was M.P. or Knight of the Shire for the County of Kent. He was also Comptroller of the Customs on wool and wine. His greatest work is the "Canterbury Tales."

Cobham, Sir John Oldcastle, Lord, was a pious and learned nobleman who became a follower of Wycliffe. Being persecuted for his opinions, he escaped into Wales, where he remained four years in hiding. He was at length taken and burned, in the year 1417.

Dunstan, Saint (925-988), was Abbot of Glastonbury, the place where he was born. He was banished by Edwy from the kingdom, but Edgar made him Bishop of Worcester and, in 959, Archbishop of Canterbury. He took a large share in affairs of State; while the result of his influence upon the Church was to bring it more completely under the Pope's authority than it had ever before been.

Flambard, Ralph, an unscrupulous Norman churchman, was chaplain and chief adviser to William Rufus. He proved himself very skilful in extorting money for his master and for himself, and in this way he earned the cordial hatred of all classes of the people. The king rewarded his services with the Bishopric of Durham. He died in 1128.

Godwin, Earl (d. 1053), was instrumental in obtaining the crown for Edward the Confessor and became his principal minister. The Norman influence, however, which was so powerful with Edward and to which Godwin, as a thorough Englishman, was hostile, brought about his downfall; and in 1051 he was outlawed. In 1052 he invaded the country with a fleet; and, as no one could be induced to fight against him, he was restored to his original position. He died in the following year.

Guthrum the Dane (9th century) was king of East Anglia in the time of Alfred the Great. He defeated Alfred and forced him to take refuge in the Isle of Athelney. The latter, however, succeeded in reassembling an army, and at the siege of Ethen-dune in 878 compelled Guthrum to make peace. The Danes were to accept Christianity, and a part of the kingdom (the Danelagh) was to be theirs, on condition that they did not molest the English. Guthrum died in 890.

Hereward the Wake (= Watchful), "the last of the Saxons," refused to submit to William the Conqueror. With a company of outlaws, among whom were Siward and Morcar, he fortified the Isle of Ely, in the marshes of the Fens, and there maintained a desperate resistance. In 1071 William besieged and broke up his camp, but Hereward escaped. What afterwards became of him is uncertain. He is the hero of Kingsley's fascinating romance.

Hotspur. *Vide* Percy, Henry.

Lanfranc (1005-1089) was Abbot of St. Stephen's at Caen, whence he was called by William the Conqueror to the Archbishopric of Canterbury. He rebuilt the cathedral and restored the supremacy of the See. He was a learned man and possessed much influence, not only in the Church but also in the State.

Langlande, William (1332-1400), was born in Shropshire. He wrote a poem, in alliterative verse (or head-rhyme), called the "Vision concerning Piers the Plowman." It describes the miseries of the labouring classes in the fourteenth century. It was written in the Midland Dialect. Langlande's work bears the same relation to the Saxon or purely English part of the nation that Chaucer's "Canterbury Tales" bear to the Norman part.

Leicester, Simon de Montfort, Earl of (1208-1265), led the English barons in their struggle against Henry III., and forced the king to accept the Provisions of Oxford. On Henry's violating the Provisions, De Montfort met and defeated him at the Battle of Lewes in 1264. In 1265 the first Parliament containing knights and burgesses was summoned by him; and he may be called the father of the present House of Commons. At the Battle of Evesham he was defeated by Prince Edward and killed.

Llewellyn, the last Welsh Prince of Wales, was ordered by Edward I. to do homage, but refused. Edward in consequence made war upon him and defeated him in 1277. Five years later Llewellyn was again in "rebellion" and was killed in battle.

Longchamp, William de, a Norman ecclesiastic, was Bishop of Ely and Justiciar of England in the reign of Richard I. During Richard's absence, Longchamp resisted the attempts of Prince John to oust his brother; found out where the king was imprisoned; and raised money for his ransom. He was, however, overbearing and extortionate, and in 1191 he lost his office. Richard, on his return, made him Chancellor. He died in 1197.

Malcolm III., known as Malcolm Canmore, was the son of that Duncan who was murdered by Macbeth. He was crowned King of Scotland in 1058. After the Norman Conquest he gave shelter to Edgar the Atheling; and in 1070 he ravaged the North of England. William thereupon invaded Scotland and compelled Malcolm to do homage. In 1079 and again in 1091 Malcolm made inroads into England; on the latter occasion, he concluded a treaty with William Rufus and did homage to him. He revolted, however, in 1093, marched into England, and was slain at the siege of Alnwick.

March, Roger Mortimer, Earl of (1287-1330), lived in the reigns of Edward I. and Edward II., by the latter of whom he was made Lieutenant of Ireland in 1317. Three years later, he was imprisoned for his share in the attempt to banish the Despensers, the king's favourites; but he escaped to France and joined Queen Isabella. The two returned in 1326 to England, deposed and murdered the king, and for four years ruled the country at their will; when the young king, Edward III. determined to submit no longer to Mortimer's sway, had him seized, accused of high treason, and hanged.

Matilda, wife of William the Conqueror, was the daughter of Baldwin, Count of Flanders. She became the mother of Robert of Normandy, William Rufus, Henry I., and eight other children. It is supposed that she worked the famous Bayeux Tapestry. She died in 1083.

Matilda, first wife of Henry I., was the daughter of Malcolm III. of Scotland. Her works of piety and charity gained her the title of the "Good Queen Maud." She died in 1118.

Matilda (1103-1167), daughter of Henry I. of England, married Henry V., emperor of Germany, and in consequence is often called "the Empress." On her father's death the throne was usurped by Stephen. Matilda invaded England in 1139, but after eight years of civil war she was forced to give up her claim. By her second husband, Geoffrey of Anjou, she was the mother of Henry II.

Matilda of Boulogne was the wife of Stephen and the daughter of Eustace, count of Boulogne. In 1137, while Stephen was in France, she managed the affairs of the country. During the civil war she took an active part with her husband against the Empress Matilda. She died in 1151.

Northumberland, Henry Percy, Earl of, was appointed Marshal of England by Edward III. In the reign of Richard II. he joined the party of Henry of Lancaster; and when Henry became king, Percy was rewarded with the gift of the Isle of Man. In company with his son Hotspur, he defeated the Scots at Homildon Hill in 1402. He also took part with Hotspur in the rebellion which led to the latter's death. He himself rebelled again in 1403 and was killed at Bramham Moor.

Pembroke, William the Marshal, Earl of, obtained the title by marriage with Strongbow's daughter. He was a judge under Richard I., and a firm friend of King John. When John died, Pembroke acted as regent during the minority of Henry III.; and, on the young king's behalf, confirmed Magna Charta. In 1217 he destroyed the French fleet which invaded England in support of the claims of Prince Louis; and defeated the Count de Perche at the Fair of Lincoln. He died in 1219.

Percy, Henry (1366-1403), son of the Earl of Northumberland, on account of his rash daring was surnamed "Hotspur." At the battle of Chevy Chase (Otterburn) he slew the Douglas; and in conjunction with his father he defeated the Scots at Homildon Hill in 1402. The rewards which he received from Henry IV. failed to satisfy him; and the year after Homildon Hill he allied himself with the Scots and was slain at the Battle of Shrewsbury. (The words *Chevy Chase* are a corruption of French *Chevauchée*, an expedition on horseback.)

Percy, Henry, Earl of Northumberland. *Vide* Northumberland.

Poynings, Sir Edward, is chiefly notable for the law which bore his name. In 1494, Henry VII. sent him as Lord Deputy to Ireland; where he stamped out what was left of Perkin Warbeck's rebellion and passed his famous Act. By this it was ordained that all English laws should hold good in Ireland, and that no Irish Parliament should meet without the consent of the king of England.

Roches, Peter des, a favourite of King John, was made Bishop of Winchester, and in 1219 succeeded the Earl of Pembroke as the guardian of Henry III. His foreign birth made him very unpopular with the English nobility, and he was twice obliged to leave the kingdom. In 1231 he returned and was welcomed by the king; his rival, Hubert de Burgh, was disgraced, and all his enemies dismissed from office. His own downfall took place three years later. He died in 1258.

Warwick, Edward Plantagenet, Earl of, was son of the Duke of Clarence and nephew of Edward IV. On the accession of Henry VI., Warwick, as the Yorkist heir to the throne, was imprisoned in the Tower. In 1499 it was pretended that he had entered into a conspiracy with Perkin Warbeck, his fellow-prisoner; and on this pretext he was beheaded.

Warwick, Guy, Earl of, whom Gaveston, the favourite of Edward II., had nicknamed the "Black Dog of Arden," seized Gaveston in 1312 and beheaded him. Warwick died in 1315.

Warwick, John Dudley, Earl of. *Vide* Northumberland.

Warwick, Richard Beauchamp, Earl of (1381-1439), took part, with Henry IV., in the defeat of Hotspur at Shrewsbury in 1403. He was tutor of Henry VI. from 1428 till 1437, when he was appointed Regent of France. This office he held until his death. He was father-in-law of the "King-maker."

Warwick, Richard Neville, Earl of (1428-1471), is known in English history as the "King-maker." In the Wars of the Roses he fought at first for Edward, Duke of York; won for him the Battle of St. Albans in 1455; and in 1460 took Henry VI. prisoner at Northampton, next year proclaiming Edward King. About 1464 he became dissatisfied with the appointment he had made, and retired to France. In 1470 he invaded England, compelled Edward to fly the country, and restored Henry VI. Edward returned in the following year and met Warwick at the Battle of Barnet, where the King-maker was defeated and slain.

Warwick, Thomas Beauchamp, Earl of, was governor or tutor to Richard II. In 1397, along with the Duke of Gloucester, the king's uncle, he was accused of treason and was banished. He died in 1401.

Wycliffe, John (1324-1384), the originator of the Reformation in England, was appointed in 1374 Rector of Lutterworth. In 1377 the Bishop of London ordered him to appear and answer a charge of heresy, and next year he was called on a similar charge before the Archbishop of Canterbury. No very serious consequences resulted from these summonses; and in 1380 Wycliffe's translation of the Bible, the first complete English version, appeared. His attacks upon the Pope and upon the doctrine of transubstantiation led to a proclamation of his writings as dangerous and heretical. Urban VI. commanded his attendance at Rome, but Wycliffe died before he could set out.

TERMS EMPLOYED IN ENGLISH HISTORY

Aids.—A feudal tax levied by the king on special occasions. Henry I., *e.g.*, levied on the marriage of his daughter an aid consisting of three shillings on each hide or allotment of land.

Alod.—This was the name given to a hereditary estate, the right to which was derived from primitive or original occupation. Thus, Robinson Crusoe's island was the "Alod" of Robinson Crusoe; or (2) it might be a private estate, created out of the public land by legal process, the possession of which was confirmed by a charter.

Angevin.—A native of, or belonging to, Anjou.

Assize of Arms.—A revival in 1181 of the old *fyrd* (*q.v.*) or national militia. All men, citizens, burgesses, free tenants, villeins, and others, were bound by the Assize of Arms to provide themselves with arms proper to their class, and to place themselves, when required, at the service of the local authorities.

Atheling.—*See* Etheling.

Attainder.—A Bill of Attainder was an Act of Parliament authorising the impeachment of any person or persons. The bill had first to receive the assent of the Commons, and was then laid for approval before the king. He approved it in the words, "*Le roy le voet*"—the king wills it. The passing of a Bill of Attainder against a man gave him no opportunity of defence, and was a means much employed by kings for getting at men they disliked.

Bail.—A sum of money lodged in Court as a pledge that an accused person will appear in Court on the

day appointed for his trial. If he does not appear, he is said to break his bail, and the money deposited is confiscated by the Court.

Banneret.—A superior degree of knighthood. This rank might be, and was, conferred on peers; but did not entitle the holder to sit in the House of Lords.

Bookland.—Originally spelt *bocland*. Land of which the possession was confirmed by charter or legal documents. Bookland was private estate, created out of public land. *See* Alod (2).

Bull.—The Pope's Bulls were orders or commissions issued by the Pope. *Bull* originally meant *seal*, from L. *bullā*, a seal; and thus these Papal mandates bearing a bulla or seal were called Bulls. Pope Adrian IV. issued a Bull bestowing Ireland on Henry II.

Canon Law.—Canon Law is distinguished from common law in that it professed to deal with spiritual questions only, and with all matters that related to the clergy and religion. It did not, however, confine itself to these matters, but had, for instance, almost entire control over marriage and will cases. The ultimate effect was that the clergy were set above the ordinary law, and gave obedience to none but the Canon Law.

Carucage.—A tax of from two to five shillings on each *carucate* or hundred acres of land.

Castellan.—The constable of a castle.

Ceorl (or *churl*, as it has now become) was a freeman with all legal rights, who was entitled to be the possessor of one hide (about 30

acres) of land. A ceorl was the lowest degree in the rank of free-men. (It is the Scotch word *Carl*; German, *Karl*; English, *Charles*.)

Chapter.—A cathedral chapter is the whole body of clergy connected with a cathedral. At the head of the chapter stands the Dean.

Cinque Ports.—The five (cinque) ports, Dover, Hastings, Romney, Hythe, and Sandwich, were bound to furnish for the king's service a fixed quota of ships. Subsequently the number of ports so bound increased.

Client.—A man who was included in the following of, or depended for protection on, some lord, who had to be responsible for the appearance of the client in court. Imprisonment in the modern sense was unknown among the Old English communities.

Communa.—The communa was a collective term for the fully-qualified members of a township, to whom a town-charter had been granted. Such would be the owners of land, houses, and shops, who had all a share in the internal government of their city, and reserved to themselves the privileges of trade and manufactures in their own district.

Constable.—See *Marshal*. The duties of a constable were substantially the same as those of marshal.

Convocation was the name given to the general assembly of the clergy, and consisted of the archbishop, the bishops, and representatives of the clergy from each diocese, called proctors. There were and are two convocations, one of Canterbury and the other of York.

Coracle.—A primitive (British) boat made of hides stretched on a frame of wickerwork.

Council, Privy.—Composed of the officers of the Royal household, the judges, some of the bishops and barons, and other members, clerical and lay. It was the special instrument of the kingly power, and acted side by side with, and often in opposition to, the National or Royal Council. Powers:

- (a) It acted as a standing council of advice to the king;
- (b) It received petitions and remitted the petitioners to the proper courts;
- (c) Its ordinances had temporarily the force of laws;
- (d) It possessed a large civil and criminal jurisdiction.

Council, Royal.—The successor to the old Witenagemot. It was composed of bishops, abbots, earls, barons, and knights, who were there nominally to advise and deliberate with the king, and vote on measures proposed; and nominally also the king had to get their consent before making any move. Actually it was only the most distinguished of the Council whom the king consulted with, if he chose to consult at all. Sometimes other men—strangers of special skill or knowledge—were admitted; and on some occasions the Council consisted of a general muster of the landowners of the kingdom.

County Court.—"In the County Courts and under the guidance of the Sheriff, was transacted all the business of the Shire" (Stubbs)—matters, judicial, military, and fiscal, and generally those that related to the working of the county. In the County Court too, the election of Knights of the Shire was vested.

Court Baron "was the ancient gemot of the township, in which by-laws were made, and other local business transacted."—(Stubbs.) This court probably answered to the Justices of the Peace Court of the present day, who try petty cases, and dispose of other small local matters.

Court Leet.—A local court dealing with matters of petty criminal jurisdiction; and especially concerned with the maintenance of the **frank pledge** or **frithborh**—a surety entered into by ten men, or a "tithing," to produce, or be responsible for any of their number in a Court of Law, if required. "An association of ten in common responsibility."—(Stubbs.)

Crenelated.—“Furnished with loopholes, through which missiles might be shot.” (Connected with the word *Cranny*.)

Curia Regis was in a measure a committee of the Royal Council. It was presided over on important occasions by the king; and in his absence by the chief justiciar. The court was composed of the great officers of the household. The same body also had control of the assessment and collection of the revenue. Functions: (1) A Supreme Court of Appeal for persons not satisfied with the decisions of lower courts; (2) “A tribunal of primary resort” (Stubbs) for powerful barons who would not submit to lower jurisdiction; (3) It also exercised control over the whole jurisdiction of the country, by sending out Judges to sit in the different local courts.

Danegeld.—Extraordinary taxation imposed by the Saxon kings, originally for making war against the Danes or to buy off their hostility. William the Conqueror made it a permanent source of revenue, though the necessity for exacting it was no longer present. In 1163 this tax disappears, but presents itself under Richard I. as *carucage*. See *Carucage*.

Dane Law.—Under the Anglo-Saxon kings the kingdom was divided into three districts, the West Saxon, Mercian, and Danish Law. In the Dane Law or *Danelaga* the Danes possessed a recognised right to enjoy their own laws and customs. This threefold division disappears after the reign of Stephen.

Demesne.—Demesne land was the direct property of the king, either farmed out by the Sheriffs of the Counties as stewards, or managed immediately by the Crown.

Diocese.—The district under control of a bishop, as its spiritual head. The diocese was subdivided into archdeaconries, deaneries and parishes.

Duke.—The highest rank of nobility after the Prince. It was a dignity borrowed from the usage of

foreign countries. The first Dukedom, that of Cornwall, was founded by Edward III. in 1337, to be the perpetual rank of the king's eldest son and heir-apparent.

Earl.—The Earldom (Danish *jarl*) “had begun to supplant the title of Ealdorman in the reign of Ethelred,” but retained many of the features of the older office. Military duty was imposed on the Earls by the Norman kings in addition to their judicial functions. The Earl of Chester, *e.g.*, under William the Conqueror, had to keep the Welsh Marches. Generally the Earl had complete superiority, both as to the administration of justice, appointment of Sheriffs, and the system of feudal-tenure, in the county or counties over which he was set.

Ealdorman.—The highest rank a vassal could hold under the Anglo-Saxon kings. The Ealdorman had civil jurisdiction over a shire or a cluster of shires, amounting to a small kingdom, and therein was the viceroy of the king. He was nominally elected by the King and Witenagemot, but actually the office was hereditary. Ealdorman means the elder man, or man in authority, and corresponds in meaning to the Roman *Senator*. The Ealdorman was entitled to hold forty hides of land.

Election of Bishops:

- (1) In the earlier times—under the Confessor—the king either directly appointed a bishop or else nominated him in the Witenagemot, and then consulted the clergy and leading men of the diocese, as to their wishes or opinion of the nominee.
- (2) The Pope appointed directly, without consulting the chapter.
- (3) The king sent his licence to the chapter to elect, and nominated a candidate, subject to the approval of the Pope.
- (4) The king nominated, and the chapter elected. The chapter, if displeased with the king's nominee, could appeal to the Pope. This was the ultimate

stage, and in time the Pope's authority was dispensed with altogether.

Election of Knights of the Shire.—By the Magna Charta it was enacted that twelve sworn Knights in each county should be chosen to carry out the provisions of the Charter. These were elected, either by the County Court or by such persons, being freemen of the County, whom the Sheriff should summon for election purposes; the candidates having been previously nominated by the Sheriff.
—See Freeholder.

Election of Sheriffs.—Either (1) elected by the officers of Exchequer, or (2) could be elected by the County.

Englishry, presentment of.
—The English often requited their Norman conquerors by secret murder. Against this William the Conqueror enacted that every man found dead should be presumed a Norman; and that the hundred, within which the dead man was found, should be heavily fined, unless proofs of "Englishry" (*i.e.* of English birth) were advanced by the four nearest relations of the deceased.

Escheat.—An estate was said to be escheated to the Crown, when the Crown took possession, either on the death of the owner without heirs, or on its forfeiture for some offence committed by the owner. If retained by the Crown and not granted to another owner, it was farmed out and known as an Honour.

Etheling.—The Ethelings or Athelings were the sons and brothers of the king. They ranked above the rest of the nobility, and their *wer-gild* was half of what was payable for the king. The word is cognate with the German *Adel*, noble.

Feudal tenure.—"The king was the original lord, and every title [to land] issued mediately or immediately from him."—(Stubbs.) The vassal held land from his lord; and in return had to render military service and all other obedience. Through the medium of land tenure

the whole fabric of feudal society was "bound together by obligation of service and defence."—(Stubbs.)

Fifteenth was a tax of a fifteenth on the value of all movables.

Folkland.—The land of the folk, or the common land belonging to the people and owned by no particular individual. It might be leased out in private estates, which paid rent to the State; and on the death of the lessee it reverted to the State. In earlier times even the king could not appropriate any part of it without consent from the Witenagemot; subsequently it became royal demesne. (See Demesne.)

Folkmoot.—The moot or meeting of the folk of the shire. It was the local parliament of the shire, in which the people met to discuss the administration and business of the shire.

Foss.—The ditch or moat that usually ran round the Norman castles for defensive purposes. (Lat. *fossa*, a ditch.)

Frank pledge.—See Court Leet.

Freeholder.—A man who held his land absolutely as his own, and did not pay rent for it to another. These were the men who served as juries, elected the Knights of the Shire, and assembled with the proper equipment of arms in the shire's muster of forces.

Frith-borh.—See Court Leet.

Frith-gild was in part what is known as a benevolent society in our time.

Its chief functions were:

- (a) To bestow alms.
- (b) By a subscription of fourpence as a kind of insurance fund, to make good the losses of its members.
- (c) To pursue and procure the conviction of other men who might have defrauded the members of the guild.

See Guilds.

Fyrd.—Military Service. "Every owner of land was obliged to the fyrd."—(Stubbs.) So much land

had to provide so many warriors—possibly one warrior for each hide, or each five hides. For neglecting the fyrd, a fine called Fyrd-wite, was exacted. It will be noticed that the fyrd bears great resemblance to the main condition of feudal tenure. (*Wite* in Scotland still means *blame*.)

Fyrd-wite.—See Fyrd.

Gerefa.—Possibly connected with German *Graf*, Count, and derived from *grau*, grey=senior. (We find it in Scotland in a shorter form as *grieve*, which, in England and in Chaucer's time, was *reeve*, both words meaning farm-bailiff.)

"In the free townships he and the four best men were the legal representatives of the community in the court of the hundred and the shire."—(Stubbs.) The hundred court was a court that tried criminals, acted as arbitrators in disputes, and witnessed transfers of land.

Guilds.—The development of Guilds may be traced back from very early times. They were, simply stated, friendly societies—confraternities united together for the performance of mutual good offices; the members contributed money or goods to their support, and celebrated their meetings by festivals. The Exeter Guild, *e.g.*, was what we should now call a burial society; it buried its dead members and provided money for the singing of masses for the comfort of their souls. It also insured members against the risk of fire. (Some of the Guilds, notably those of Chester, Coventry, and Wakefield, were famous for the presentation of Mystery Plays.)

Hauberk was a coat of plate or chain mail without sleeves.

Hide.—About thirty acres of land. The whole land belonging to a community was portioned off into hides; and each freeman, according to his rank, possessed so many hides.

Hlaford.—A free but landless man had to place himself in a condition of dependence on some person

called a *hlaford*, who should be responsible for his appearance in Court, if required. This was because the landless man had no "tangible stake in the community through which the law can enforce its obligations."—(Stubbs.) Modern form, *lord*.

Homage "is the form that binds the vassal to the lord (*i.e.* in most cases the king), whose man he becomes, and of whom he holds the land, for which he performs the ceremony on his knees and with his hands in his lord's hands. All land was held from the king, and so all landholders had to do him homage." French, *homme*.

Homage of the Bishops.—

The Bishops in virtue of their baronial tenure owed homage to the king, but only as to matters temporal. Thomas à Becket, before his murder, said that he had the spirituals from God and the Pope, the temporals from his lord the king. Thus the homage of the bishops was limited in respect of spiritual things. See Homage.

Hundred.—The hundred was a union of townships for the purpose of judicial administration, peace and defence."—(Stubbs.) The head or convener of this body was called the hundred-man or hundredealdor; he was the elected representative of the freemen. The king's representative—the Hundred's Gerefa—sat with the hundred-man; he was afterwards called the bailiff of the hundred. The division into hundreds was utilised in taxation as forming a rateable division of the country.

Hundred-Gemoot.—Court of the hundred. It was presided over by the hundred-man or hundredealdor; and composed of the whole body of freeholders in the hundred. Usually, however, its powers were delegated to a representative committee of twelve. The Court had criminal and civil jurisdiction, and all litigants were bound to apply to it before appealing to a higher Court. On the institution of Frank pledge, one of its main duties was seeing that each man in the hundred was enrolled in a

tithing. (*See Court Leet and Tithing. See also Gerefa.*)

Hus Carls.—Bodyguard of the Saxon kings.

Jarl was a Danish title. The Jarl had very nearly the same powers and duties as the Earl and Ealdorman.

Justiciar.—The Justiciar was the Regent or Lieutenant of the king, for the administration of judicial and financial duties in his absence. It was often found to be convenient to have an officer to dispense justice in place of such a king as William the Conqueror, who was often out of England, and did not understand the language of his subjects. Generally he was the confidential adviser of the king.

Knight Service was the tenure by which the king granted estates to his followers. Tenure by Knight Service was subject to the following conditions:

- (a) Military Service.
- (b) Payment of Aids. (*See Aids.*)
- (c) Payment of Reliefs. (*See Reliefs.*)
- (d) King's right of Escheat. (*See Escheat.*)

Maletote was a toll of forty shillings on every sack of wool. In 1297, Edward I. agreed not to exact it without consent of Parliament.

Laenland.—Bookland or Folkland leased out by its holders to free cultivators. *See Bookland and Folkland.*

Lathe was the name given to subdivisions of the hundred in Kent. These subdivisions were made for the sake of judicial organisation.

Legate, Papal.—The Papal legates were:

- (a) Special officers sent by the Pope to conduct some business in England in the Papal interest; or
- (b) The dignity of legate was granted to the two Archbishops of Canterbury and York, as the representatives of the Pope in England.

Livery.—The distinguishing dress worn by the retainers of great

nobles. Thus the livery of the Earl of Leicester, Queen Elizabeth's favourite, was a cloak bearing the device of a bear with a ragged staff. The wearing of livery was forbidden by the Statute of Provisors (1392), because it encouraged powerful nobles to maintain a large liveried retinue, ready for any opportunity of disturbance. Strolling players in and after Shakespeare's time had to assume the livery of some nobleman, in order to evade the law against vagabondage. (French *livrer*, to give or deliver.)

Lollards.—The Lollards were a sect called into existence by the preaching of John Wycliffe, the chief aim of whose teaching was to unmask the shams that passed as religion. To these tenets his followers added many wild revolutionary theories; and it was against these in particular that the Statute *De Heretico comburendo* (statute for the burning of heretics and revolutionists) was enacted. In 1412 the Lollards raised a rebellion against Henry V. under Sir John Oldcastle; and their enemies declared that they aimed to destroy the King and all the Estates of the realm, subvert the Christian faith, and appoint Sir John Oldcastle president of a Commonwealth.

Maintenance.—If a poor man wanted to go to law, and was afraid to fight his own case, he sometimes secured the advocacy of a powerful baron, on the understanding that the larger portion of the profits of the victory, if won, should be handed over to the *maintainer* of the cause. This practice was a constant one, and as constantly forbidden by law especially by the Statute of Provisors (1392).

Manor was the whole extent of land under a Norman baron, over the inhabitants of which he had jurisdiction, both in criminal and civil suits. From the lord of the manor the tenants held their land, and were thus bound to do him service. "Every manor had a court baron in which by-laws were made, and other local business transacted."—(Stubbs.)

Mark.—A coin, worth 13s. 4d., so called from the mark impressed on it.

Mark.—"The general name of the mark is given to the territory which is held by the community."—(Stubbs.) Of this the arable land was annually divided between the free cultivators; and the pastoral land was held in common. Each freeman had a right to the *use* only of the land; the absolute *possession* was merged in the community as a whole. The Mark is one of the oldest civil institutions common to the Aryan race. It is best preserved at the present day among the Slavonic peasants of Russia.

Marshal.—This office corresponded to the horsethegn of the Anglo-Saxons (*see* Thegn). The marshal, whose office was hereditary, was quarter-master-general of the army. He saw that proper military service was rendered by those from whom it was due; organised and arranged forces that were going to take the field, and during the war held courts for the trial of offences against military laws.

Merchant Guilds were associations containing all the traders and shopkeepers of the different towns; and without their licence no person was allowed to trade in any town, where was a merchant guild. The freedom of a city then means licence from the guild to trade therein. As the merchant guild embraced all the principal traders in the town, it became identical in fact with the governing body or town corporation.

Mund.—Special security granted to a man by king, eorl, or ceorl, the violation of which was punished by a fine, *mundbyrd*. In the time of Ethelbert wrong done to a member of the royal household was punished by a *mundbyrd* of fifty shillings. A man who granted this *mund* or security to another requiring protection was called *mundborh*.

Mundbyrd and Mundborh.
—*see* Mund.

Oath Compurgatory.—"An accused might clear himself by his

own oath, strengthened by the oath of certain compurgators."—(Langmead.) The word **Compurgator** means "a man who helps to clear another;" and compurgators were "witnesses to character," and testified to the sincerity and honesty of the accused.

Odal.—Of the same signification as Alod, *q.v.* The Odallers or Udallers, are the freeholders of Orkney. Introduced by the Norsemen into Ireland, the word has been Hibernicised into O'Dell.

Ordeal.—Ordeal was employed when—

(a) The accused failed to justify himself by oaths compurgatory.

(b) Was taken red-handed.

(c) Was a notorious perjurer.

The ordeal was regarded as a judgment of God and as therefore a proof from God of the guilt or innocence of the accused. There were three kinds of ordeals, hot iron, hot or cold water, and the *corsnaed* or *accursed morsel*.

If the accused passed safely through all or any of these he was held to be innocent.

Peter's Pence or **Rome-scot** "was a tax of a penny on each hearth, which was collected and sent to Rome from the beginning of the tenth century."—(Stubbs.)

Poll-tax.—A tax imposed on each poll (=head), *i.e.* on each person.

Port-reeve (**Port-gerefa**) was the name given to the presiding magistrate of mercantile communities, such as London and Bath.

Praemunire.—The first Statute of Praemunire (1353) was a law which enacted outlawry and forfeiture of estates on those who sued in foreign courts, and especially the Papal Court, for matters which fell properly under the jurisdiction of the King's Courts.

In 1393 was passed the great Statute of Praemunire which forbade the obtaining of Bulls and other Papal instruments under pain of forfeiture of goods.

Provisors.—The famous Statute of Provisors was passed 1351. It

emphatically forbade the Pope to nominate to English benefices. In 1392 another very important Statute of Provisors was passed. Its main points were:

- (a) That the Statute of 1351 should be re-confirmed.
- (b) That maintenance should be abolished. (*See Maintenance.*)
- (c) That the custom of livery should be discontinued. (*See Livery.*)

Proxy was the authorisation given by a member of the House of Peers to another person to vote for him. The authorisation had to be made by letter; and royal licence had to be granted for the appointment of a proxy.

Purveyance.—From *pourvoir*, to provide. "This was a privilege exercised by the Crown of buying up provisions and other necessities, by the intervention of the king's purveyors, for the use of his royal household, at an appraised valuation, in preference to all others, and even without the consent of the owner, and also of forcibly impressing the carriages and horses of the subject to do the king's business on the public road—upon paying a settled price."—(Blackstone, "Comment." i. 287.)

The Magna Charta contained a clause directed against this abuse.

Rape.—The name given to a subdivision of the hundred in Sussex. These subdivisions were purely geographical and not for judicial or fiscal purposes.

Relief.—On the death of a tenant his estate was allowed to descend to the heir, only on condition of a sum of money, called a relief, being paid to the king. William Rufus was so exacting in the matter of reliefs that he practically compelled the heir to redeem or purchase his inheritance. But by the Magna Charta it was settled that the relief for a barony should be £100 and for a knight's fee 100s.

Riding.—Originally thirding or thridding, a third part. So Yorkshire is divided into three ridings—North, East, and West. South

Yorkshire formed the old district of Hallamshire, round Sheffield. Lincolnshire was similarly divided.

Sac and Soc.—Side by side with the hundreds there often existed *franchises* or *liberties*, estates of free jurisdiction, over which the jurisdiction was vested in private hands and not in the hundreds. These exempt estates were termed *sithesoch*; and their holders enjoyed all rights hitherto in the power of the king—the rights of nominating officers and exercising judicial functions. These particular rights were known as *sac and soc*; and, as is above mentioned, the rights of *sac and soc* conveyed the privilege of private jurisdiction over the estate outside of the hundred court.

Sanctuary.—To seek "sanctuary" meant to take refuge "at the horns of the altar." Sanctuary was sought by a man fleeing for his life or to escape imprisonment. For a pursuer to take a fugitive out of sanctuary was an offence which the clergy could punish.

Scot and lot.—The right of election for the boroughs was granted to all householders paying *Scot and lot*; "that is, bearing their rateable proportion in the payments levied from the town for local or national purposes."—(Stubbs.) This is in effect the electoral system that obtains at the present time.

Scutage.—Money paid in commutation of personal military service. It was instituted by Henry II. in 1159; and by furnishing him with the means of hiring mercenaries, made him in a great measure independent of the barons.

Shire moot.—The meeting of the Shire—the general assembly of the folk of the shire. After the Conquest it was called the *County Court* (q.v.). It was composed of the sheriff, the ealdorman, the bishop, all lords of lands within the shire, and representatives from each township. This court took cognisance of every kind of suit, except in matters that concerned the king; but resort could not be

made to it, until application had been first made to the hundred-gemoot. *See* County Court and Gerefa.

Socage Tenure was a "tenure by any certain and determinate service, as to pay a fixed money rent, or to plough the lord's land for a fixed number of days in the year."—(Langmead.) It was *not* held on condition of military service.

Speaker.—The speaker was the foreman or embodied voice of the House of Commons, the mouth-piece by which the House could make its wishes, demands, or advice known to the king or queen. This was the original use of a speaker; his chief function at the present time is to preserve order and decorum in the debates of the House.

Tallage.—A land tax levied on the towns and demesne-lands. The payer declared the value of his land and the officers of the Exchequer assessed the amount of tax. In 1297 it was declared illegal for the king to exact it without consent of Parliament.

Tallies.—The sheriff had to send in to the Exchequer the amount of taxes he had collected. To mark the number of pounds, shillings and pence received, the Exchequer prepared a tally, a long stick with notches cut on it, each notch standing for so much. The stick was then split in half, the Exchequer keeping one half and the Sheriff the other. Thus the Exchequer knew how much it had received, and the Sheriff how much he had paid.

Thegn.—Original meaning, servant. He was a freeman and a landholder; and as such bound to military service. Thegns were the free-retainers and body-servants of the king or nobles. For instance, we read of the King's horse-thegn, an office which survives in our Master of the Horse. So the King's dish-bearer is the disc-thegn.

Tithing.—*See* Court Leet and Hundred Gemoot.

Tithe.—A tenth part of a man's goods and produce which was bestowed on the Church, to be divided among the clergy and the poor.

Tonnage and poundage.—A tax of two shillings on each tun of wine, and sixpence on each pound of merchandise. It was originally levied for a limited time for the support of the navy; but was converted under Henry V. into a permanent source of revenue.

Tun.—The original meaning of *tun* was the quickset hedge enclosing a single farm or a village. It soon came to mean the village itself; and as such is "the unit of constitutional machinery." Its head man was called *tun-gerefa*. The **Tun** formed the characteristic unit of Teutonic civil life, in contrast to the **Polis** (the rocky Acropolis or *Bal*) of the Classical and Celtic races. The inhabitant of the one was a slow simple farmer, of the other a quick-witted citizen.

In Scotland the farm-buildings are still called "the Toun." (The word is cognate with the German *Zaun*, a hedge, with the *Tines* of a stag's antlers, the last syllable in *eglantine*, the sweet-brier.)

Vassal.—A vassal was a man who had done homage (*see* Homage) to a superior—either king or noble—in return for land granted to him. The mutual obligations existing between the lord and vassal were that the lord should defend and that the vassal should be faithful.

Viceroy was the representative of the king. The ealdorman, *e.g.*, was the Viceroy of the king in the shire over which he presided.

Villeinage and Villeins.—Tenure in villeinage was the system by which the villein held land which he was allowed to cultivate in lieu of money-wages. The villein possessed no title-deeds for this land, and in return for this he had to perform certain base services.

Villeins were divided into classes—**the villeins pure and villeins**

privileged. The first class were bound to do any work that was set them, and "knew not in the evening what they were going to do in the morning,"—being "occupiers of the land at the lord's will."—(Langmead.)

The tenure of the privileged villein was certain. Generally speaking, the villein in relation to his lord or master was in the position of a serf, but free in relation to all others. He could be formally made free by the manumission of his lord, or he could free himself by running away and staying away for a year and a day. He had some political rights in that he could send representatives to the hundred moot or shire moot, but, otherwise, he could only assert his rights indirectly through his master.

Against this the villein and his children could be sold with the land on which he lived.

Wapentake (= Weapontake).—The Anglian synonym for the hundred (*q. v.*).

Wergild.—It was held among the English that every injury to person or property could be compensated by a money payment, called *wergild*. Every man's life had its value, and according to that valuation also the worth of his oath in courts of justice was estimated. The wer of a ceorl was 200 shillings; of an ealdorman 2400 shillings, and of a king three times as much as an ealdorman. (The word *wer* is cognate with the Latin *vir*, a man, and *virtus*, manliness.)

Witenagemot.—The gemot or meeting of the Witan or wise men. This was *not* probably a representative assembly, but composed of the king, ealdormen, the king's thegns, the bishops and abbots, and, roughly speaking, of all the wise men of the kingdom. It numbered probably about 100. Although the Witenagemot was not strictly speaking a representative meeting, yet it was unquestionably regarded as representing the national power and will. Its main powers were:

- (a) The right to depose the king for misgovernment. So the National Parliament three times exercised this power in deposing Edward II., Richard II. and James II.
- (b) It could elect the king.
- (c) It had a right to immediate participation in every act of government, judicial, legislative, and fiscal. In its judicial capacity it was the Supreme Court of Appeal. Of course the extent to which it exercised these powers greatly depended on the character of the king; and all its powers were not always exercised. But in the matter of legislation and extraordinary taxation "the right of the Witan to give advice and counsel was at all times exercised."—(Langmead.)

Yeomanry is hardly a technical term, but was the general name given both to the small freeholding farmers and also to the tenant farmers.

HISTORICAL TALES¹

(IN CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER)

TITLE.	AUTHOR.
1. Daybreak in Britain,	A. L. O. E.
2. Edal the Druid,	W. H. G. KINGSTON.
3. Wulfgar the Earl,	{ Author of "Ruth and her Friends."
4. Tales of the Saxons,	EMILY TAYLOR.
5. Sea-Kings of England,	E. ATHERSTONE.
6. Eldric the Saxon,	A. S. BRIDE.
7. Harold,	LORD LYTTON.
8. Hereward the Wake,	CHAS. KINGSLEY.
9. William the Conqueror,	C. J. NAPIER.
10. The Camp of Refuge,	C. MACKAY.
11. Ivanhoe,	SIR WALTER SCOTT.
12. The Talisman,	SIR WALTER SCOTT.
13. Richard Cœur-de-Lion,	JAMES WHITE.
14. Runnymede and Lincoln Fair,	J. C. EDGAR.
15. The Siege of Kenilworth,	L. S. STANHOPE.
16. Stones of the City of London,	Mrs. N. CROSLAND.
17. Berkeley Castle,	G. F. BERKELEY.
18. Cressy and Poitiers,	J. C. EDGAR.
19. John of Gaunt,	JAMES WHITE.
20. Merrie England,	AINSWORTH.
21. Forest Days (Robin Hood),	G. P. R. JAMES.
22. Robin Hood,	P. EGAN, Jun.
23. Agincourt,	G. P. R. JAMES.
24. Joan the Maid,	Mrs. CHARLES.
25. The Caged Lion (James I.),	C. M. YONGE.
26. The Last of the Barons,	LORD LYTTON.
27. Historical Tales of the Lancastrian Times,	H. P. DUNSTER.
28. The Earl Printer,	L. G. GUERNSEY.
29. The Woodman (Richard III.),	G. P. R. JAMES.
30. The Last of the Plantagenets,	Anon.
31. Henry VII.,	Mrs. SHELLEY.
32. Fortunes of Perkin Warbeck,	Mrs. SHELLEY.
33. Bosworth Field,	Anon.
34. London City Tales,	E. M. STEWART.

¹ This List is extracted, by permission, from Mr. H. Courthope Bowen's "Descriptive Catalogue of Historical Novels and Tales" (London: Stanford).

INDEX



INDEX

NOTE.—In many cases information will also be found in the Short Lives of Eminent Persons p. 297, or in the List of Terms, p. 302.

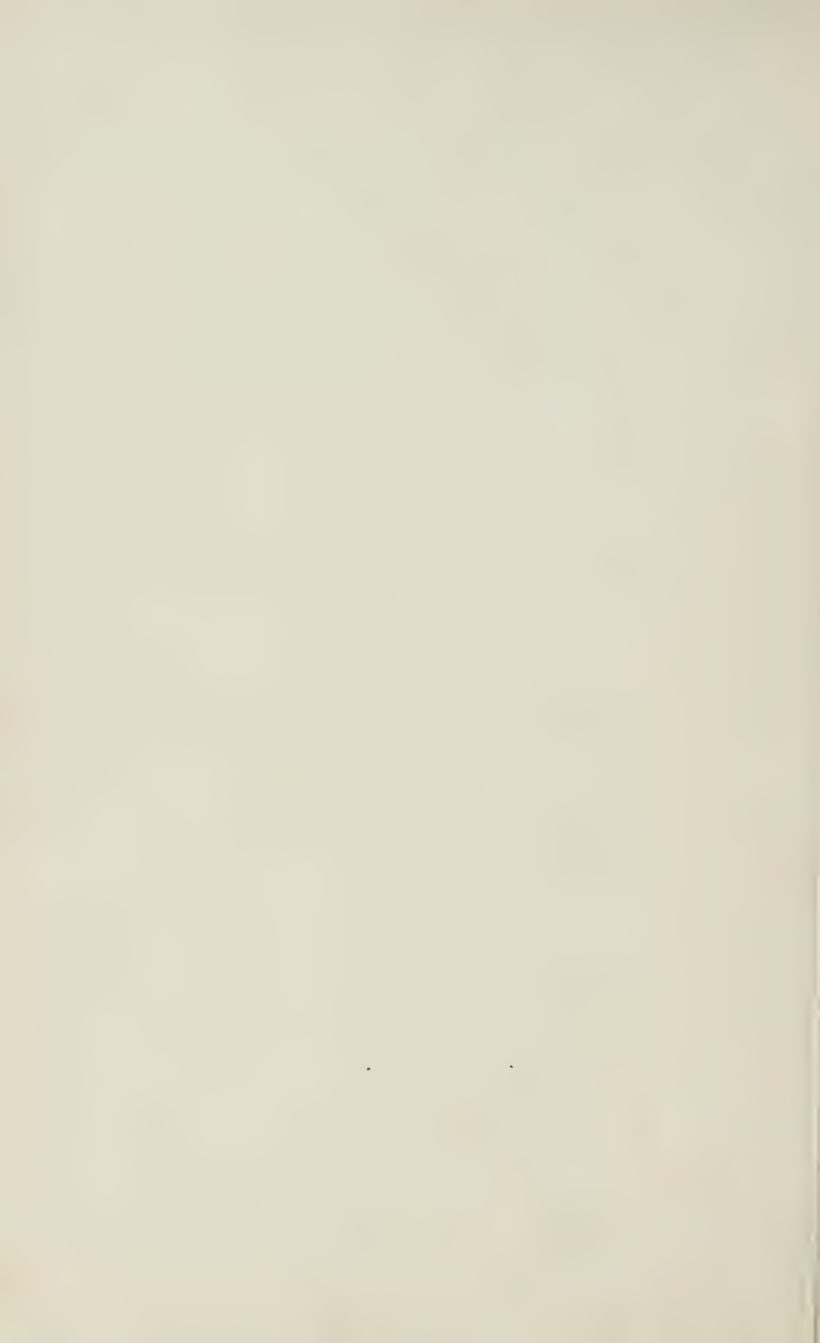
- ACTS OF PARLIAMENT AND Statutes. First Statute of Westminster, 152; Statute of Gloucester, 152; Statute of Mortmain, 153, 208; Second and Third Statutes of Westminster, 153; Statute of Winchester, 153; *De Donis Conditionalibus*, 154; *Quia Emptores*, 154; First Statute of Labourers, 157; Statute of Provisors, 192, 193, 208; Statute of *Præmunire*, 192, 193, 208; Statute of Treasons, 192; Second Statute of Labourers, 208; First Navigation Act, 208; *De Heretico Comburendo*, 223; Statute of Users, 272; Statute of Fines, 272; Statute of Liveries, 281, 286.
- Agin-court, 232.
- Agricola, 11.
- Aidan, 23.
- Aids, 63, 71.
- Albany, Duke of (brother to Robert III.), 227, 228, 237.
- Albany, Alexander, Duke of, 268, 269.
- Alcuin, 23.
- Alexander I., 82.
- Alexander II., 141.
- Alexander III., 165.
- Alfred the Great, 25, 26; defeats the Danes, 27; as a ruler, 28; Death of, 29.
- Amiens, Mise of, 144.
- Anderida, Siege of, 20.
- Angevin (Plantagenet) England (1145-1272), General Chapter, 145; Political and Ecclesiastical, 145; Social Conditions, Towns, and Commerce, 146; Language, 147; Literature, 148.
- Angevin (Plantagenet) England (Fourteenth Century). *Vide* Fourteenth Century, General Chapter.
- Angevin (Plantagenet) Kings, Earlier, 93; Genealogical Table, 94; Possessions (*temp.* Henry II.), 95.
- Angevin (Plantagenet) Kings, Later, 149; Genealogical Table, 150.
- Angles, 15; Parts of England settled by, 19.
- Anglesea, Devastation of, 9.
- Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, 52, 91.
- Anglo-Saxon England. *Vide* Saxon England.
- Anglo-Saxons. *Vide* English.
- Anjou, Geoffrey of, 79, 84.
- Anne, "Good Queen," 203, 204.
- Anne Neville, 270.
- Anselm, 68, 69; his policy, 71; recalled from banishment, 76.
- Antoninus, Wall of, 13.
- Appellant, Lords, 202.
- Arc, Joan of, 243, 244.
- Arms, Assize of, 105.
- Arragon, Katharine of, 283, 284.
- Arras, Congress of, 245.
- Arthur (Count of Brittany), 119.
- Arthur (son of Henry VI.), 253.
- Arundel, Archbishop, 223, 226, 239.
- Arundel, Earl of, 202.
- Assize of Arms, 105.
- Assizes, Origin of, 106.
- Atheling, Edgar the, 46, 55, 56, 72.
- Athelney, 26.
- Athelstan, 32.
- Attainder, Bill of (against Henry VI., etc.), 256.
- Augustine, Saint, 22.
- Anius Plantius, 9.
- Avalon, Hugh of, Bishop of Lincoln, 116.
- Aylesford, Battle of, 18.
- BACON, ROGER, 141.
- Beda. *Vide* Bede.
- Ball, John, 199, 201.
- Balliol, Edward, 180, 196.
- Balliol, John, Pedigree, 143; does homage to Edward I., 157; rebels, 159; is deposed, 160.
- Bannockburn, 170-173.
- Barbour, John, 216.
- Barnet, Battle of, 259.
- Bath, Knights of the, 226.
- Bats, Parliament of, 252.
- Beaufort, Edmund, Duke of Somerset, 248, 249, 263.
- Beaufort, Henry, Bishop of Winchester, 226, 239, 241, 246, 247.
- Beaufort, Thomas, 226.
- Beaugé, Battle of, 236.
- Becket, Thomas, 97; Chancellor, 97; Archbishop, 98; he quarrels with Henry II., 98; leaves England, 99; returns, 100; his murder and its results, 101; Henry does penance, 102.
- Bede, the Venerable, 23.
- Bedford, John, Duke of, 241, 242, 245, 253.
- Benefit of Clergy, 165.
- Benevolences, 272, 280.
- Beowulf, 62.
- Berengaria, 112.
- Bernicia, 22; Northern, 30.
- Bigod, Roger, 164.
- Black Death, 186, 187.
- Black Prince, at Cressy, 184; at Poitiers, 187; Expedition to Spain, 189; Death, 192.
- Blanchetaque, 232.
- Blancheth, Battle of, 250.
- Boadicea, 10.
- Bocland (Bookland), 48.
- Bohun, Humphrey, 164.
- Bolingbroke, Henry. *Vide* Hereford, Henry of.
- Boniface of Savoy, 134.
- Boulogne, Siege of, 280.
- Bouvines, Battle of, 122.
- Bramham Moor, Battle of, 222.
- Brenville, Battle of, 77.
- Bretigny, Peace of, 189.
- Bretwalda, 20.
- Brigham, Treaty of, 191.
- Britains, The Three, 2.
- Britannia, Prima and Secunda, 11.
- Britannicus, 9.
- Bruce, Robert (King of Scotland). *Vide* Robert I.
- Bruce, Robert (Lord of Annandale), 142; his pedigree, 143; he claims the crown of
- Scotland with Balliol, 157.
- Brunanburgh, Battle of, 32.
- Buckingham, Henry Stafford, Duke of, 265; revolts from Richard III., 271; his death, 271, 272.
- Burgh, Hubert de. *Vide* De Burgh.
- Burgundian Alliance, 241, 245.
- CADÉ, JACK, 247.
- Cædmon, 23.
- Cæsar (Julius), 5.
- Caesariensis, Flavia and Maxima, 11.
- Calais, taken by Edward III., 185; last English possession in France, 245.
- Camulodunum, 10.
- Cantware, 22.
- Canute, 36, 38, 39.
- Caractacus (Caradoc), 9.
- Carham, Battle of, 40.
- Cassivellaunus (Caswallon), 6.
- Catus, 10.
- Caxton, William, 263, 264.
- Celts in Britain, 4.
- Cearls, 49.
- Cerdic, 19.
- Charters. Charter of Liberties, 75, 76; Stephen's Charter, 83; The Great Charter (Magna Charta), 123; *Confirmatio Chartarum*, 162; Charter of the Forest, 163.
- Châtillon, Battle of, 245.
- Chaucer, Geoffrey, 194, 209, 216.
- Chevy Chase, 210.
- Chronologies, Summaries, and Tables of Contemporary Events. Roman Period, 14; First English Period, 23; Second English Period, 31; Third English Period, 37; Fourth English Period, 46; William I., 64; William II., 74; Henry I., 82; Stephen, 89; Henry II., 109; Richard I., 117; John, 129; Henry III., 144; Edward I., 166; Edward II., 177; Edward III., 185.

- 197; Richard II., 210; Henry IV., 228; Henry V., 239; Henry VI., 254; Edward IV., 264; Edward V., 269; Richard III., 274; Henry VII., 289. Cinque Ports, 64. Clarence, George, Duke of, 258; his death, 261. Clarence, Lionel, Duke of, 178. Clarence, Thomas, Duke of, 236, 239. Clarendon, Constitutions of, 99. Claudius, 9. Clergy, Benefit of, 165. Cnut. *Vide* Canute. Cobham, Sir John Oldcastle, Lord, 230. Colonies, Roman, 12. *Comes Littoris Saxonici*, 17. Common Pleas, Court of, 106, 124, 154. Commons, House of. Origin, 138; Growth, 193; Speaker, 195. Compurgation, Trial by, 50. Comyn, John, 161, 164; his pedigree, 158. Confessor, Edward the, 41. *Confirmatio Chartarum*, 162. Constantine, 31. Constitutions of Clarendon, 99. Copyholders, 196, 251. Council, Great, 80; Great and Continual, 224. Craft-Guilds, 91, 291. Cressingham, 160. Cressy, Battle of, 183. Crevant, Battle of, 242. Criddle, 20. Crusade, First, 69; Second, 89; Third, 111. Curfew, 64. *Curia Regis*, 80. DALRIADA, 30. Danelagh, 36; revived by William I., 60; abolished, 76. Danelagh, 28. Danes, 24; Defeat by Alfred, 27; Five Boroughs of, 29; their conquest of Britain, 32; Massacre of, 36. Danish Kings of England, 38. Dates, Plans of. First Ten Centuries, 40; Eleventh Century, 74; Twelfth, 116; Thirteenth, 148; Fourteenth, 216; Fifteenth, 294. David I., 82, 88. David II., 196. De Burgh, Hubert, 131; holds Dover Castle, 131; his fall, 132. *De Donis Conditionalibus*, 154. De Gaveston. *Vide* Gaveston. *De Heretico Comburendo*, 223. De Montfort. *Vide* Leicester, Earl of. De Mowbray, Philip, 170. *De Tallagio non Concedendo*, 168. De Vere, 202. Deirnas, 22. Dermot, 103. Des Roches. *Vide* Roches, Peter des. Despensers, Hugh (*temp.* Henry III.), 139, 174, 176. Despensers, The (*temp.* Edward II.), 174; beheaded, 175. Dialects, Northern, Southern, and Midland, 215. Diocletian Persecution, 14. Domesday Book, 60. Donald Banc, 72. Douglas, Catherine, 238. Douglas, Earls of, 210, 223, 253, 254. Druids, 4; Slaughter of, 9. Dudley and Empson, 284. Duncan, 40. Dunstan, 33, 34, 35. EADWINE, 22. Ealdormen, 49. East Angles, 23. East Saxons, 22. Ebbesfleot, 18. Eboracum, 13. Edgar (King of Scotland), 72, 81. Edgar (the Atheling), 46, 55, 56, 72. Edgar (the Peaceful), 34, 35. Edinburgh founded, 21. Edith of Scotland. *Vide* Matilda (or Maud) the Good. Edmund, Saint, 25. Edmund I., 33. Edmund II. (Ironside), 36. Edred, 33. Edward (the Black Prince). *Vide* Black Prince. Edward (the Confessor), 41. Edward (the Elder), 29. Edward (the Martyr), 35. Edward I., wins the battle of Evesham, 138; becomes king, 151; his reforms, 152, 153; conquers Wales, 154; expels the Jews, 155; decides Scottish Succession, 156; relations with France, 158; Parliament of 1295, 159; Edward invades Scotland, 159; deposes Balliol, 160; is opposed by Wallace, 160; and Robert Bruce, 161; dies, 162; Character, 162; Great Men, 164; Social Facts, 165; Chronology, etc., 166. Edward II., 167; periods of his reign, 167; Piers de Gaveston, 168; Lords Ordainers, 169; End of Gaveston, 170; Edward's relations with Scotland, 170; Bannockburn, 172; Rule of Lancaster, 173; New Favourites, 173; New Quarrels, 174; Edward's disposition and murder, 175; Great Men and Social Facts, 176; Chronology, etc., 177. Edward III., 178; rides himself of Mortimer and Isabella, 179; defeats the Scots at Halidon Hill, 180; Hundred Years' War begins, 180; Edward in Flanders, 181; Troubles in England, 182; Cressy, 183; Taking of Calais, 185; Neville's Cross, 186; Black Death, 186; Poitiers, 187; Peace of Bretigny, 189; Renewal of war, 189; Good Parliament, 190; Death of the Black Prince, 192; Edward's Parliaments, 192; Death of Edward, 193; Great Men, 194; Social Facts, 195; Chronology, etc., 197. Edward IV. *Vide* March, Edward, Earl of. His reign, 255; Wars of the Roses, 255-259; Henry VI. in prison, 256; the Nevilles, 257; their revolt, 258; Death of the King-Maker, 259; Edward's government, 260; Invasion of France, 261; Death and Character, 261; Great Men and Social Facts, 263; Chronology, etc., 264. Edward V., 265; Gloucester made Lord Protector, 266; Deposition of Edward, 267; Death, 271; Chronology, etc., 269. Edwin, 21, 22. Edwin and Morcar, 46, 56. Edwy, 34, 35. Egbert, 21, 22, 23. Eleanor of Provence, 132. Elgiva, 34. Elizabeth of York, 277, 278. Ella, 19. Empson and Dudley, 284. England in Saxon Times, etc. *Vide* General Chapters. *Englands, The Three*, 3. English (Anglo-Saxons) in Britain, 15; at home, 15; at sea, 17; their religion, 16; first landing, 18; Kingdoms of, 19-23; Egbert, King of the, 21; Chronology of First Period, 23; Second Period, 31; Third Period, 37; Fourth Period, 46; General Chapter, *vide* Saxon England. Eorls, 49. Ercewin, 22. Escheat, 63. Eschage, 105. Ethandune, Battle of, 27. Ethelbald, 21, 25. Ethelbert, 25. Ethelfleda, 29. Etheling, Edgar the, 46, 55, 56, 72. Ethelred I., 25, 26. Ethelrede Unrede, 35, 36. Ethelwulf, 25. Eustace (Count of Boulogne), 41. Eustace (son of Stephen), 86. Evesham, Battle of, 138. Exchequer, Court of, 81, 154. Eyre. *Vide* Justices. FAIR OF LINCOLN, 131. Falaise, Treaty of, 128. Falkirk, Battle of, 161. Feudalism, 56, 62. Fief, 57; Forfeiture of, 63. Fifteenth Century, General Chapter, 290; the Renaissance, 299; Trade, 290; Agriculture, Architecture, Manners and Customs, 291; Printing, 292; Language, 292; Literature, 293; Modern History begins, 293. Fines, Statute of, 272. Fitzosbern, 55, 63. Fitz-Peter, Geoffrey, 116, 127. Flambard, Ralph, 67; his policy, 71; thrown into the Tower, 76. Flavia Caesariensis, 11. Folk-land, 48, 53. Folk-moot, 49. Foss Way, 13. Fourteenth Century, General Chapter, 211; Great Changes, 211; Trade, Agriculture, Architecture, Manners and Customs, 212; Houses, Furniture, etc., 213; London, 214; Language, 215; Literature, 216. France. English possessions in France under Henry II., 95, 96; Richard I. invades France, 114; Loss of Normandy, 119; Louis VIII. invades England, 131; Relations with France under Edward I., 158; under Edward III., 180-182, 183-186, 187-190; under Henry IV., 222; under Henry V., 230-235; under Henry VI., 242-246; Calais the last English possession in France, 245; Edward IV. invades France, 261; Henry VII. invades France, 279. Franklins (Freeholders), 48, 195. Fyrd, 67, 84, 105. GALGACUS, 11. Gascoigne, Judge, 225. Gaunt, John of, 178, 202, 206; his power, 190. Gaveston, Piers de, 168; his death, 170. Genealogical Tables, House of Normandy, 54; Norman Kings of England, 65; Scottish

- Kings (1033-1286), 73;
 Earlier Angevin (Plantagenet) Kings, 94; Relationship between Henry II. and Malcolm IV., 108; Pedigree of Balliols and Bruces, 143; Later Angevin (Plantagenet) Kings, 50; Claimants to Scottish Throne (1291), 158; French Succession (*temp.* Edward III.), 181; Origin of Stewart Line, 209; Houses of York and Lancaster, 218; House of Tudor, 276.
- General Chapters, Saxon England, 47; Norman, 90; Angevin or Plantagenet (Earlier), 145; Fourteenth Century, 211; Fifteenth, 290.
- Geoffrey of Anjou, 79, 84.
 Geoffrey of Monmouth, 148.
- Gerheroi, Battle of, 57.
 Gillies' Hill, 172.
- Glanville, Ranulf de, 107.
- Glendower, Owen, 221, 222.
- Gloucester, Humphrey, Duke of, 241, 246.
- Gloucester, Richard, Duke of, 258, 259, 265; Lord Protector, 266; beheads Lord Hastings, 266; deposes Edward V., 267; and is crowned as Richard III.
- Gloucester, Robert of, 148.
- Gloucester, Robert of Caen, Earl of, 85, 88.
- Gloucester, Statute of, 152.
- Gloucester, Thomas, Duke of, 202, 203; his death, 204.
- Godwin, 41, 42.
- Good Parliament, 190.
- Gower, John, 216.
- Graham's Dyke, 13.
- Great Council, 80.
- Great and Continual Council, 224.
- Great Peace, The, 234.
- Grey, Elizabeth, 257.
- Grooms of the Britons, 14.
- Grosseteste, Robert, 140.
- Guilds, 91, 291.
- Gunpowder invented, 281.
- Guthrum, 26.
- Gwallies Statutum*, 155.
- HADRIAN, 13.
- Halidon Hill, Battle of, 180, 196.
- Hansa League, 291.
- Hardicanute, 39, 40.
- Harlaw, Battle of, 228.
- Harold I. (Harefoot), 39, 40.
- Harold II., 42, 45.
- Harold Hardrada, 43.
- Hastings, Battle of, 44-46.
- Hastings, Lord, 266, 267.
- Hedgely Moor, Battle of, 256.
- Hengist, 18; Lord of Kent, 19.
- Hengist Down, Battle of, 24.
- Henry I., 75; his marriage, 76; Events of the reign, 77; Loss of the White Ship, 78; Second Marriage, 79; Death, 79; Great Men, 80; Social Facts, 81; Chronology, 82; Battles and Treaties, 82; Contemporary Events, 82.
- Henry II., attacks Stephen, 86; becomes king, 95; Possessions in France, 96; Relations with Becket, 97-102; Clergy, 98; Constitutions of Clarendon, 99; Conquest of Ireland, 103; Death and Character, 104; Law Reforms, 106; Great Men and Social Facts, 107; Henry's relationship to Malcolm IV., 108; Chronology, etc., 109; Acts of Government, 109.
- Henry III., 130; Periods of his reign, 130; French Invasion, 131; Hubert de Burgh, 131; Foreign Courtiers, 132; Henry's Faults, 133; Relations with the Pope, 134; Provisions of Oxford, 135, 136; Simon de Montfort, 136; Battle of Lewes, 136; Origin of Parliament, 137; Battle of Evesham, 138; Death of Henry, 139; Great Men, 140; Social Facts, 141; Chronology, etc., 144.
- Henry IV. *Vide* Hereford, Henry of. His claims, 219; Plots and Fears, 221; Rebellion of the Percies, 222; Relations with France, 222; Lollards, 223; Parliament, 224; Death and Character, 225; Great Men and Social Facts, 226; Chronology, etc., 228.
- Henry V., as Prince of Wales, 225; becomes king, 229; Lollards, 230; Renewal of Hundred Years' War, 230; Henry invades France, 231; Agincourt, 232; Treaty of Troyes, 234; Death and Character, 235; Great Men and Social Facts, 238; Chronology, etc., 239.
- Henry VI., 240; the Protectorate, 241; Affairs in France, 242; Battle of Hatherly, 242; Joan of Arc, 243; Difficulties of the English, 245; Hundred Years' War ends, 246; Governing Powers, 246; Jack Cade, 247; Wars of the Roses, 249; Deposition of Henry, 250; Parliament, 251; Great Men and Social Facts, 252; Chronology, etc., 254; Henry imprisoned under Edward IV., 256; released by the King-Maker, 258; his death, 259; Character, 251.
- Henry VII. *Vide* Richmond, Henry Tudor, Earl of. His reign, 277; his marriage, 278; Era of Personal Rule, 278; Lambert Simnel, 279; Invasion of France, 279; Henry's Extortions, 280; Perkin Warbeck, 283; Marriage of Henry's son and daughter, 283; Empson and Dudley, 284; Death of Henry, 285; Parliament, 286; Great Men and Social Facts, 287; Chronology, etc., 289.
- Heptarchy, The, 20.
- Hereford, Henry of, Duke of Lancaster, quarrels with Norfolk and is banished, 205; returns to England and is proclaimed king, 206. *Vide* Henry IV.
- Hereward the Wake, 56.
- Herrings, Battle of the, 242.
- Hexham, Battle of, 256.
- Hoard of Winchester, 62, 70.
- Holy Island, 21.
- Homildon Hill, Battle of, 221, 222.
- Honorius, 13.
- Horsa, 18.
- Hotsput, 210, 222.
- Hundred-moot, 48, 80.
- Hundred Years' War, begins, 180; is renewed by Henry V., 230; ends, 246.
- Hurling-time, 200.
- IDA, 19.
- Ikenild Street, 13.
- Inductum Parliamentum*, 224.
- Investiture, 78.
- Ireland, Conquest of, 103.
- Irmin Street, 13.
- Ironside, Edmund, 36.
- Isabella (queen of Edward II.), 174; invades the kingdom with Mortimer, 175; Edward III. throws off her influence, 179.
- Isabella (queen of Richard II.), 203, 204.
- JACK CADE, 247.
- Jack Straw, 200, 201.
- James I. (of Scotland), a prisoner in England, 227; his reign and murder, 237; 293.
- James II., 253, 254.
- James III., 267, 268.
- James IV., 285.
- Jewries, 111, 156.
- Jews, Expulsion of the, 155.
- Joan of Arc, 243, 244.
- John. His treachery to Richard I., 114; he becomes king, 118; Claim of Arthur, 119; Quarrels with the Pope, 120; John resigns the crown, 121; is defeated in France, 122; Disputes with the Barons, 122; Runnymede, 123; War with the Barons, 124; Death, 125; Results of the Reign, 126; Great Men and Social Facts, 127; Chronology, etc., 129.
- John of Gaunt. *Vide* Gaunt.
- John the Good, 188.
- Julius Agricola, 11.
- Julius Cæsar, 5.
- Jury, Presentment by, 706.
- Justices in eyre, 706.
- Justiciar, 68.
- Jutes, 15; Parts of England settled by, 19.
- KANTIA, 22.
- Katharine of Arragon, 283, 284.
- Kenilworth, *Dictum de*, 139.
- Kenneth Macalpine, 31.
- Kent, Kingdom of, 19, 22.
- King-Maker, The. *Vide* Warwick, Richard Neville, Earl of.
- King's Bench, Court of, 106, 154.
- King's English, 215.
- Knights, Templars and Hospitaliers, 177; of the Bath, 226.
- Knut. *Vide* Canute.
- LABOURERS, First Statute of, 187; Second, 208.
- Lambert Simnel, 279.
- Lambeth, Peace of, 131.
- Lancaster, Henry, Duke of. *Vide* Hereford, Henry of.
- Lancaster, John, Duke of. *Vide* Gaunt, John of.
- Lancaster, Thomas of, 170; his rule of the kingdom, 173; beheaded, 174.
- Lancastrian and Yorkist Kings, 217; Genealogical Tables, 218.
- Lanfranc, Archbishop of Canterbury, 59; Adviser of William Rufus, 66; Death, 67; Policy, 71.
- Langton, Stephen, 120, 121; heads the Barons, 122; 127, 140.
- Largs, Battle of, 165.
- Layamon, 148.
- Learning, Revival of, 287, 290.
- Leicester, Simon de Montfort, Earl of, 136; wins the Battle of Lewes, 137; summons Parliament, 137; is defeated at Evesham, 138; and slain, 139.
- Lewes, Battle of, 136; Mise of, 137.
- Liberties, Charter of, 75, 76.
- Lincoln Fair of, 131.

- Lincoln, Hugh, Bishop of, 116.
 Lindsafarne, 21.
 Liveries, Statute of, 281, 286.
 Llewellyn, 131, 139; conquered by Edward I., 154.
 Lollards, Origin of the, 178; under Richard II., 203; under Henry IV., 223; under Henry V., 230.
 Lollius Urbicus, 13.
 London (Londinium), 10; (Lundenwic), 23; becomes the Capital, 108; Mayor and Corporation, 116; London in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, 146; in the fourteenth, 214; under Henry VII., 288.
 Longchamp, 111, 113, 114.
 Lords Appellant, 202.
 Lords Marchers, 67, 77.
 Lords Ordainers, 169; their ordinances, 170.
 Lucy, Richard de, 107.
 Lundenwic, 22.
 Lydgate, John of, 293.
 MALCOLPINE, KENNETH, 31.
 Macbeth, 40.
 Mad Parliament, 135.
 Magna Charta, 123; confirmed by Henry III., 134.
Magnam Concilium, 80.
 Maid of Norway, The, 156, 157, 165, 190.
 Maintenance, 281, 282, 286.
 Malcolm I. and II., 40.
 Malcolm III. (Canmore), 40, 68, 69, 72.
 Malcolm IV., 89; Table of his relationship with Henry II., 108.
 Male-toile (wool-tax), 162.
 Maltravers, Sir John de, 175.
 Maudeville, Sir John, 216.
 Manorial System, 195.
 March, Edmund Mortimer, Earl of, 220, 221, 222.
 March, Edward, Earl of, 250; proclaimed king as Edward IV., 251.
 March, Roger Mortimer, Earl of, *Vide* Mortimer, Roger (2).
 Marches, Lords of the, 67, 77.
 March-land (Mercia), 19.
 Margaret (daughter of Henry VII.), 284.
 Margaret (Maid of Norway), 156, 157, 165, 190.
 Margaret (queen of Henry VI.), 246, 247; defeats Warwick at St. Albans, 250; flees to Scotland, 256; 258; defeated at Tewkesbury, 259.
 Matilda (the Empress), 79. *Vide* Stephen.
 Matilda (the Good), 76.
 Matilda (wife of William I.), 55.
 Maud the Good, 76.
 Maupertuis, 188.
 Maxima Caesariensis, 11.
 Meaux, Capture of, 236.
 Mendicant Friars, 141.
 Mercia, 20, 21, 23.
 Merciless Parliament, 202.
 Micyl Gemot, 49.
 Mise of Amiens, 144.
 Mise of Lewes, 137.
 Mona, Devastation of, 9.
 Monmouth, Geoffrey of, 148.
 Monmouth, Henry of. *Vide* Henry V.
 Mons Grampius, Battle of, 11.
 Montfort, Simon de. *Vide* Leicester.
 Moot-hill, 16.
 Morcar and Edwin, 46, 56.
 Mortimer, Edmund, Earl of March, 220, 221, 222.
 Mortimer, Roger, Earl of March (*temp.* Edward II. and III.), 174, 180; invades the kingdom with Isabella and deposes Edward II., 175; is arrested by Edward III. and hanged, 179.
 Mortimer, Roger, Earl of March (*temp.* Richard II.), 206, 207.
 Mortimer's Cross, Battle of, 250.
 Mortmain, Statute of, 153, 218.
 Morton, Cardinal, 280.
 Mowbray, Philip de, 170.
 Myrena, 23.
 NAVIGATION ACT, First, 208.
 Navy, Origin of, 238.
 Nechtansmere, Battle of, 21.
 Neville, Anne, 270.
 Neville, Archbishop of York, 209.
 Neville's Cross, Battle of, 186.
 Nevilles, The, 257; their revolt against Edward IV., 258. *Vide* Warwick.
 New World, Discovery of, 287.
 Newcastle, Treaty of, 142.
 Norfolk, Roger Bigod, Earl of, 164.
 Norman England, General Chapter, 90; Change of Nationality, 90; Officers of the Crown, 90; Language, Customs, and Population, 91.
 Norman Kings of England, 53; Genealogical Table, 65.
 Normandy, Dukedom of, 30; Genealogical Table, 54.
 Normandy, Robert, Duke of. *Vide* Robert Curthose.
 Northampton, Battle of, 250.
 Northampton, Treaty of, 179, 192.
 Northmen, 29.
 Northumberland, Henry Percy, Earl of, 206, 222.
 Northumbria, 19, 20, 21, 22.
 Norway, Maid of, 156, 157, 165, 190.
 OCTARCHY, THE, 22.
 Odin, 17.
 Odo of Bayeux, 46, 55; rebels against Rufus, 66; his policy, 71.
 Offa, 21, 22, 23.
 Oldcastle, Sir John, 230.
 Ordainers, Lords. *Vide* Lords Ordainers.
 Ordeal, Trial by, 50.
 Orleton, Adam de, 176.
 Ormulum, The, 148.
 Osherga, 26.
 Oswy, 22.
 Otto, Cardinal, 134.
 Otterburn, Battle of, 210.
 Oxford, Provisions of, 135, 136.
 PARLIAMENT, ACTS OF. *Vide* Acts of Parliament.
 Parliament, Origin of, 137; the Mad, 139; the Great (of 1295), 159; the Good, 190; the Merciless, 202; Parliament of Shrewsbury, 204, 205; *Indoctum Parliamentum*, 224; Parliament of Bats, 252; Parliament under Edward I., 152-154, 159; under Edward II., 192; under Richard II., 208; under Henry IV., 224; under Henry VI., 251; under Edward IV., 260; under Richard III., 272; under Henry VII., 286.
 Paulinus, 9.
 Pecquigny, Treaty of, 261.
 Pembroke, Strongbow, Earl of, 103.
 Pembroke, William Marshal, Earl of, 131.
 Penda, 22, 23.
 Percy, Harry (Hotspur), 210, 222.
 Percy, Henry, Earl of Northumberland, 206, 222.
 Perkin Warbeck, 289.
 Perrers, Alice, 190, 193.
 Philippa of Hainault, 186.
 Picland, 30.
 Picts, 18.
 Picts' Wall, 13.
 Plantagenet. *Vide* Angevin.
 Plautius, 9.
 Poitiers, 187.
 Poll Tax, 199.
 Portreeve, 97, 116.
 Poynings, Sir Edward, and his Law, 287.
Praemunire, Statute of, 192, 193, 208.
 Prasutagus, 10.
 Printing, discovered, 252; introduced into England, 263, 292.
 Provisions of Oxford, 135, 136.
 Provisors, Statute of, 192, 193, 208.
Quia Emptores, 154.
Quo Warranto, Writ of, 153.
 RANCOIT BRIDGE, BATTLE of, 202.
 Reeve, 48, 97.
 Reliefs, 63, 71.
 Retainers, 224, 225, 272, 281.
 Revival of Learning (Renaissance), 287, 290.
 Richard I., 110; goes on Third Crusade, 111; his imprisonment and ransom, 113; Longchamps Regency, 113; Hubert Walter's Regency, 114; Death of Richard, 114; Character, 115; Great Men and Social Facts, 116; Chronology, etc., 117.
 Richard II., 198; Condition of the Poorer Classes, 199; Rising of the Villains, 200, 201; Lords Appellant, 202; Richard declares himself of age, 202; Lollards, 203; Richard's Government, 203; Absolute Rule, 204; Henry of Hereford, 205; Richard in Ireland, 206; Death and Character, 207; Parliament, 208; Great Men, 208; Social Facts, 209; Chronology, etc., 210.
 Richard III. *Vide* Gloucester, Richard, Duke of. His reign, 270; the Princes in the Tower, 271; Revolt of Buckingham, 271; Richard's Government, 272; Coming of Henry Tudor, 273; Battle of Bosworth, 273; Death and Character of Richard, 274; Chronology, etc., 274.
 Richmond, Henry Tudor, Earl of, 271; lands in England and wins the Battle of Bosworth, 273; is crowned as Henry VII., 274.
 Rivers, Earl, 263, 265, 266.
 Roads, Roman, 12.
 Robert I. (— Robert Bruce, grandson of the Lord of Annandale), 161; his pedigree, 143; wins Bannockburn, 170-173.
 Robert II., 209.
 Robert III., 227.
 Robert Curthose, Duke of Normandy, rebels against his father, 57; sends fleet against Rufus, 67; mortgages his dominions and goes on First Crusade, 69; his death, 77.
 Robert of Gloucester, 148.
 Robin Hood, 117.
 Rochelle, Battle of, 190.
 Roches, Peter des, 127, 131, 132; his fall, 133.
 Roger, Bishop of Salis-

- bury (the Justiciar), 80; supports Matilda, 85.
 Rolf the Ganger, 30.
 Romans. First Invasion of Britain, 5; Second, 6; Settlement, 9-14; Division of the country into Provinces, 11; Advantages of their Occupation, 11; Colonies, 15; Traces left in our Language, 12; Great Roads, 12; Great Walls, 13; Departure from Britain, 13; Chronology, 14.
 Rome-Scot, 104.
 Roses, Wars of the, 249, 250; 255-259; List of Battles, 262.
 Runnymede, 123.
 ST. ALBAN, 14.
 St. Albans, First and Second Battles of, 250.
 St. Brice's Day, Massacre of, 36.
 St. Edmund, 25.
 Saxon England, General Chapter, 47; Land, 47, 48; People and Government, 49; Law and Justice, 50; Houses, Food, etc., 50; Language, 51; Literature, 52.
 Saxon Kingdoms, The, 22.
 Saxon Shore, Count of the, 17.
 Saxons, 15, 17; Parts of England settled by, 19.
 Saxons (= Anglo-Saxons). *Vide* English.
 Scotland. Early History, 30, 40; (to 1097), 72; Genealogical Table of Kings (1033-1283), 73; History (to 1124), 81; (to 1153), 88; (to 1165), 108; (to 1214), 127; (to 1249), 141; Genealogical Table of Claimants (*temp.* Edward I.), 158; History (to 1286), 165; (*temp.* Edward II.), 170; (to 1329), 190; (to 1371), 196; (to 1390), 209; Table showing origin of Stewart Line, 209; History (*temp.* Edward IV.), 227; (*temp.* Henry V.), 237; (1436-1460), 253; (*temp.* Edward IV. and V.), 267; (*temp.* Henry VII.), 285.
 Scots (and Picts), 18.
 Scutage, 105.
 Sebert, 22.
 Senlac, Battle of, 44-46.
 Severus, 13.
 Sheriff, 80, 97.
 Shire-moot, 80.
 Shire-reeve, 97.
 Shrewsbury, Battle of, 222.
 Shrewsbury, Parliament of, 204, 205.
 Shrewsbury, Robert de Bellême, Earl of, 77.
 Shrewsbury, Talbot, Earl of, 245, 246.
 Silures, 9.
 Simnel, Lambert, 279.
 Sluys, Battle of, 181.
 Somerset, Edmund Beaufort, Duke of, 248, 249, 263.
 South Saxons, Kingdom of the (South Seaxe), 19, 22.
 Stamford Bridge, Battle of, 44.
 Standard, Battle of the, 84.
 Stanley, Sir William, 287.
 Star Chamber, 286.
 Statutes. *Vide* Acts of Parliament.
 Statutum Gwallie, 155.
 Stephen and Matilda, 83; Stephen usurps the crown, 83; Battle of the Standard, 84; Landing of Matilda, 85; her son Henry invades England, 86; Settlement of the Crown, 86; State of the Kingdom, 86; Death of Stephen, 87; Great Men and Social Facts, 88; Chronology, etc., 89.
 Stewart Line, Table showing Origin of, 209.
 Stigand, 59.
 Stirling Bridge, Battle of, 160.
 Stratford, John of, Archbishop of Canterbury, 182, 194.
 Strathclyde, 30.
 Strongbow, Earl of Pembroke, 103.
 Suetonius Paulinus, 9.
 Suffolk, Michael de la Pole, Earl of, 202.
 Suffolk, William de la Pole, Earl of, 242, 246, 247.
 Summaries. *Vide* Chronologies.
 Surrey, Warrenne, Earl of, 160, 164.
 Sweyn, 36.
 TAILLEFER, 44.
 Talbot, Earl of Shrewsbury, 245, 246.
 Tenchebrai, Battle of, 77.
 Tewkesbury, Battle of, 259.
 Thanet (Thegns), 49.
 Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury, 88, 107.
 Theows, 49, 92.
 Thor, 17.
 Thurstan, Archbishop of York, 84.
 Tonnage and Poundage, granted to Edward III., 183; to Edward IV., 257; to Henry VII., 286.
 Towton, Battle of, 255, 256.
 Treasons, Statute of, 192.
 Treaties. Wedmore, 23; Wallingford, 86; Falaise, 123; Lambeth, 131; Mise of Lewes, 137; Northampton, 179, 192; Bretigny, 189; Brigham, 191; Troyes, 234; Pecquigny, 261.
 Troyes, Treaty of, 234.
 Tudor, Henry. *Vide* Richmond, Earl of.
 Tudor, House of, 275; its origin, 237; Genealogical Table, 276.
 Tudor, Owen, 237, 250, 251.
 Tyler, Wat the, 200, 201.
 Tyrrel, Walter, 70.
 UFFA, 19.
 Urbicus, 13.
 Users, Statute of, 272.
 VALENTIA, 11.
 Valhalla, 17.
 Vallum Antonini and Vallum Hadriani, 13.
 Vavasours, 75.
 Verneuil, Battle of, 242.
 Verulamium, 10.
 Vespasian, 9.
 Vespasiana, 11.
 Vezelai, 111.
 Village moot and reeve, 48.
 Villeins, 92, 195; Rising of the (1381), 200, 201.
 Vortigern, 18.
 WAKEFIELD, BATTLE OF, 250.
 Wales, Conquest of, 154; *Statutum Gwallie*, 155; First English Prince of, 155.
 Wallace, Sir William, 160, 164; Guardian of the Kingdom, 160; Defeat at Falkirk, 161.
 Wallingford, Treaty of, 86.
 Walls. Roman, 13.
 Walter, Hubert, 116, 127.
 Walthef, 56.
 Walworth, William, 201.
 Wapentake, 48.
 Warbeck, Perkin, 282.
 Wardship, 63.
 Warrenne, Earl of Surrey, 160, 164.
 Warwick, Edward Plantagenet, Earl of, 233.
 Warwick, Guy, Earl of, 163, 170.
 Warwick, Richard Neville, Earl of (the King-Maker), 248, 250, 251; his power, 257; revolts from Edward IV., 258; is slain, 259.
 Warwick, Thomas Beauchamp, Earl of, 202.
 Wat the Tyler, 200, 201.
 Watling Street, 12.
 Wedmore, Treaty of, 28.
 Welsh (= British), 21.
 Welsh Marches, 23.
 Wer-gild, 50.
 Wessex (West Seaxe), 19, 21, 22; and the Danes, 24.
 West Wales, 19.
 Westminster, First Statute of, 152; Second and Third, 153.
 White Ship, The, 78.
 Whittington, Richard, 238.
 Wigmore, Lord of = Mortimer, Roger (*temp.* Edward II. and III.).
 William I. (the Conqueror), prepares to invade England, 43; wins Battle of Hastings, 44-46; is acknowledged king, 46; crushes revolts, 57; his three enemies, 57; how he maintained his power, 57; Eleven Years of Peace, 60; Death of William, 61; Character and Government, 62; Great Men and Social Facts, 63; Chronology, etc., 64.
 William II. (Rufus), 66; Ralph Flambard, 67; Events of the Reign, 68; Death of Rufus, 69; Character, 70; Great Men and Social Facts, 71; Chronology, etc., 74.
 William Clito (or Fitz-Robert), 77.
 William "the Atheling" (son of Henry I.), 78.
 William the Lion, 127.
 Winchester (Wintancester), 22; ceases to be the capital, 108.
 Winchester, Henry, Bishop of, 83, 85, 88.
 Winchester, Hoard of, 62, 70.
 Winchester, Statute of, 153.
 Witan (Witena-gemote), 49.
 Woden, 17.
 Woodville, Elizabeth, 257.
 Wool-tax, 162, 259.
 Wycliffe, John, 194, 203, 211, 216.
 Wykeham, William of, 194, 203, 209.
 YORK, ELIZABETH OF, 277, 278.
 York, Richard Plantagenet, Duke of, 247, 248, 249, 250.
 Yorkist and Lancastrian kings, 217; Genealogical Tables, 218.



[illegible]

--	--	--	--	--

CENTURY

--	--	--	--	--

--	--	--	--	--

--	--	--	--	--

CENTURY

--	--	--	--	--



1700

1272

428

